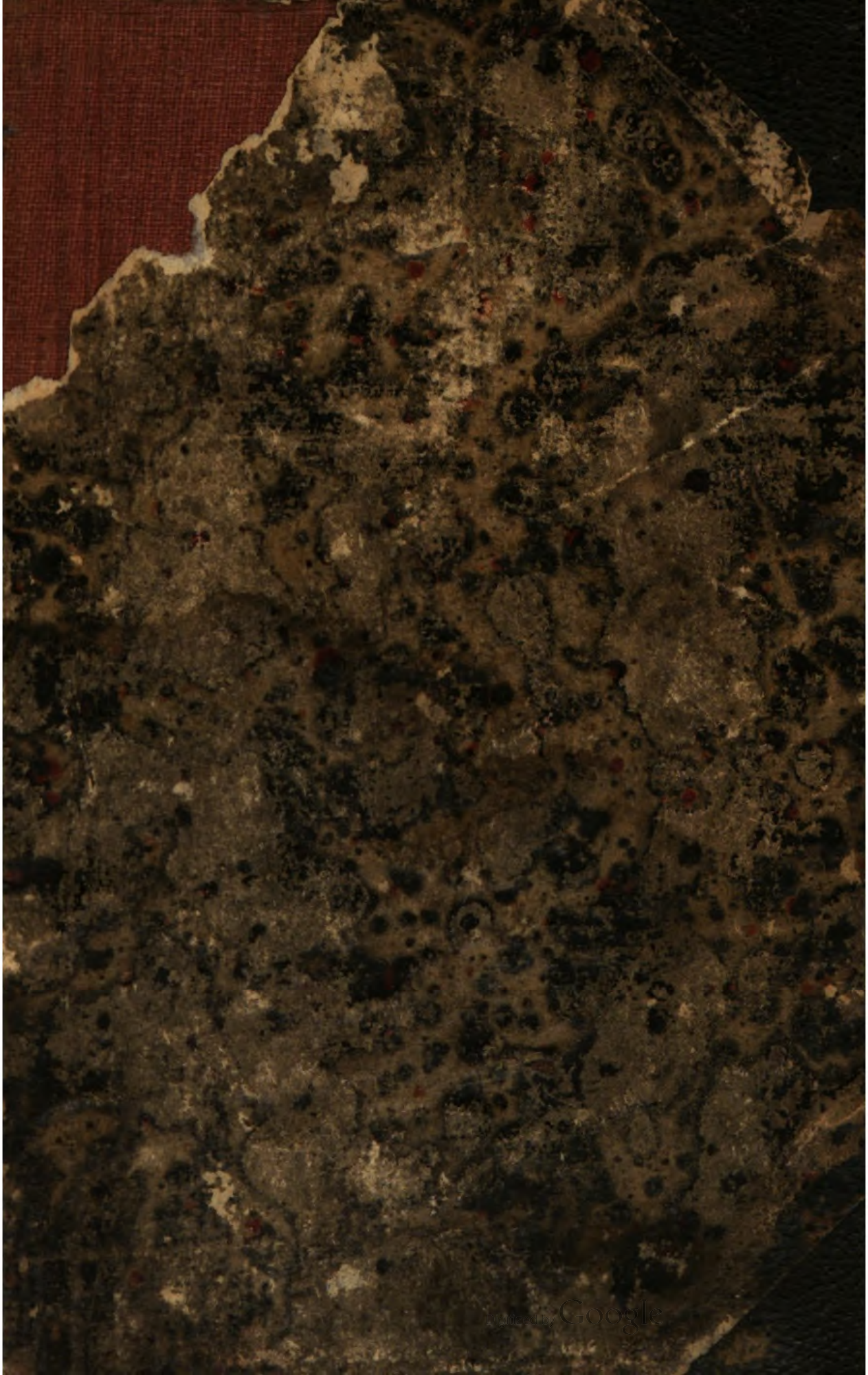

Philip Ashton Rollins

THE

IRISH EMIGRANT'S GUIDE

FOR

THE UNITED STATES.

BY REV. J. O'HANLON.

BOSTON:
PATRICK DONAHOE.
1851.

PREFACE.

The subject of emigration to the United States at the present time, has furnished abundant matter for speculation, regarding the influences it is destined to exercise on the condition of the country, and on the emigrants. In the following chapters, it has been the aim of the writer to avoid, as much as possible, all questions of a merely abstract or speculative nature, in connection with his subject. The motives that should induce emigration—the mode of procedure to be adopted when resolved on—the rational objects that should be kept in view—have principally engaged attention, with the purpose of promoting individual and social happiness, and of alleviating the inconveniences and hardships, attendant on expatriation.

Although the remarks contained in this small treatise on a very important subject, have especial reference to the character and condition of Irish emigrants, yet, in most instances, they will be found to apply to the emigrants of all other countries, and furnish advice and in-

formation of a practical character. It is the most earnest desire of the writer to present an useful guide to a class of persons that merits the sympathy, advice, and protection, of the community at large; and to contribute, so far as lies within his power, to elevate and improve the condition of the emigrant, knowing as he does, that national and social prosperity has its foundation deeply and surely placed in the sum of individual happiness. The experience of emigrant life must excite his sympathies for a class of persons who leave home and country, their regrets and attachments, for the unknown fortunes and career about to open upon them, in a strange land. A residence of many years in the United States, and the opportunities furnished by observation, enquiry, and extensive travel, enables him to present the results of this experience, and of that sympathy for the real interests of the emigrant, which will be manifested on the perusal of this work.

In adopting his remarks to the wants and condition of his own countrymen, the writer was principally moved by the desire of rendering himself better understood, and more circumstantial, as he had a better knowledge of their individual and national character, habits, customs and circumstances. He is likewise of opinion that the Irish emigrant leaves his home

and country without that amount of practical information necessary for him, or which would enable him to push his fortune with advantage to himself, in the country of his adoption.—Hence the necessity of a guide to direct him, at least in the outset of his career; and the presentation of those statements and facts of a reliable nature which may enable him to surmount the difficulties, hardships and dangers of a new life, and to advance himself to a station of comfort, honor and independence.

The "Irish Emigrant's Guide for the United States" is intended, therefore, as a manual of useful information, which the author judges applicable to the wants of his countrymen.—He can have no possible motive to produce statements that are not warranted by facts or well grounded opinions. It is his sole desire to present a true picture of the comforts and discomforts of an emigrant's life, to make no exaggerated statements, and to afford instruction, and advice, and direction to such as stand most in need of information. He has been careful to distinguish between his individual opinion and actual knowledge; between information communicated and ascertained facts. When doubtful on a subject of importance, regarding the interests of the emigrants, he has abstained from pronouncing positively, or hint-

ed his impressions with hesitation. When it became necessary for him to procure information, he endeavored to acquire it by applying to the sources, and persons, most likely to prove well informed. No statement has been made without mature reflection; but the writer would not have the inference thence drawn that his statements are always in accordance with accuracy. On a subject embracing so wide a range, and fraught with such important bearings on the welfare and fortunes of the emigrants, it would not be possible in all cases and under all circumstances, to present advice and information of an unexceptionable character.

The classification of the subjects and the matter contained in each chapter, will show the care bestowed on the compilation of this little work, and the pains taken to render the information contained suited to the persons for whose perusal it is intended. Many particulars are doubtless omitted that might be appropriately introduced; many retrenchments might even be admitted without detracting from its general utility. But in all cases, the object in view has been to introduce nothing irrelevant to the subject treated, and to avoid repetition, or even amplification on any particular advice or information previously given.

It is to be hoped, however, that no material omission of really useful information for the purposes of the emigrant has taken place: for the rest, the compiler has endeavored in compressing information, to combine precision and conciseness. In preparing the statistical tables and admitting references and illustrations, the assertions hazarded will be rendered sufficiently obvious; for when treating on those particulars it will be found that his object has been to generalize the information they are capable of presenting, and to reduce this information within its proper compass.

These pages will not afford matter for a general or even a partial survey, of the scenery, soil, resources, people, laws, and institutions of the United States, however much it might instruct the emigrant to be informed on these several particulars. He should no doubt seek information on these points; and we have referred him to the sources whence it may be drawn, and the credit to be attached to the various sketches, books of travel, histories, political and descriptive works on these several subjects. Without the knowledge to be acquired by reading of this kind, his information will be very limited, and he will be thrown on a new career of life, to learn by his own experience, conformity to strange ideas, habits,

and resources. Even the most extensive reading in connection with these subjects will not furnish the amount of information to be acquired by a short residence in the country. It is no less certain, however, that the want of this knowledge will be at first felt, and often with serious inconvenience; and it may serve to retard the progress of the most enterprising and industrious persons. Regarding the practical pursuits of emigrant life, these papers will furnish abundant particulars, and they present no higher or ulterior pretensions.

In publishing this work, the compiler is bound also to return his acknowledgements to the gentlemen who have placed at his disposal the documents and information, necessary for his purpose. These papers have been made use of with much advantage in the prosecution of his task; and the most interesting particulars extracted have been incorporated under appropriate heads. He cannot allow this opportunity to escape without tendering his acknowledgements to the President and gentlemen of the New York Irish Emigrant Society, for the very useful information they have so promptly and courteously transmitted, in return to the application made by him, before engaging on the subject of his present publication.

St. Louis, Jan., 1851.

CHAPTER I.

Preliminary considerations—Rational object of emigration—Present social comforts and discomforts—Classes that should or should not emigrate—Capability of emigrating—Inconveniences of journey, privations, and change of social position in a new country—Romantic hopes and actual occurrences of emigrant life—Present state of Ireland, and uncertainty as to her future condition—General conclusions thence drawn.

Since love of country has been deeply implanted in the mind of man by an all-wise Creator, and since the social relations that connect our early attachments cannot be dissevered without much reluctance, and strong external motives, it is but natural to suppose that the idea of emigration can be only entertained by persons who have hopes of bettering their condition in a strange land, or of furthering the interests which most engage their attention. The peculiar circumstances of nations and individuals in the Old World, and the systematic operations of colonization at the present time, lend additional importance to these considerations. We do not intend to institute an enquiry into the nature of the social relations abandoned and reconstructed; of the abstracted wealth, or the physical and mental energies transferred from one nation to another; nor do we desire to discuss those favorite problems of political economy that distract the speculations of statesmen and philosophers. Our investigations have been reduced to a narrower compass, and a more practical result.—

If we have endeavored to generalize our remarks in these pages, it was only with the design of making them useful to our countrymen, to whom they are addressed, and of rendering them the advice we believe best suited to their wants and circumstances in this country and at home; to give an aim and direction to their efforts when they have resolved on a step fraught with consequences of success or disappointment to their future career.

On the question of emigration, the adventurer should have a reasonable object in view, and never think of abandoning his native country, especially if there successful, without weighing well the difficulties, dangers, privations, and disappointments, that invariably await him in the land of his adoption. He should, in the first instance, calmly and dispassionately consider his present prospects with reference to his future—those family and friendly relationships, which confer positive enjoyments and advantages in every state of society—those substantial benefits derived from permanent and lucrative employments—his standing in society or reversionary expectations—that competence which secures the material and physical comforts of life and individual respectability, even under oppressive and absolute government—that credit or character which is, of itself, a stock in trade, and which time and test only can establish—besides, those thousand nameless attractions which, however ideal, constitute most of his pleasurable emotions, and many of his indispensable enjoyments. These matters are often undervalued at home, but they haunt the memory of the exile abroad with frequency and re-

gret. Change of location does not always bring better fortune to the emigrant. Numbers who might have lived happy and respected in their own country, find their condition and prospects sadly reversed in a strange land. These remarks are especially referable to persons who have been intended for the learned professions, accountants, and others of the middle or higher classes, who have received an education which at home might enable them to start in life with superior advantages. As we intended, however, in the course of these pages to allude in a special manner to the different classes of emigrants, their expectations and probabilities of success in the United States, we will only consider at present the condition of the poorer classes, or those immediately above them, who have the means of emigrating, and who might apply those means to the advancement of their temporal prospects.

Besides the impulsive character attributed to the Irishman, which prompts him to engage ardently in an undertaking, without stopping to count its probable risks and consequences, his buoyant and adventurous spirit is apt to support his hopes and designs under the bright coloring of his own warm imagination. He has been informed, perhaps, that beyond the Atlantic lies the Land of Liberty, the Model Republic, where all men are as nearly on an equality as the present diversified structure of society can well admit. He has been told that the stranger will there find a welcome, the exile a country, the houseless a home, the landless a farm, the laborer employment, the naked clothing, and the hungry food. He

has heard that plenty there abounds, and that want is unknown. These accounts he has gleaned from the representations of travellers, from cheap tracts and papers, or from a still more reliable source, the epistolatory communications of friends who live beyond the Atlantic. Such statements are in general true, but are too vaguely given for purposes of correct information. In these pictures we are presented with the brightest lights, viewed from the most favorable positions; there are casual shades which must enter upon the scene if we wish to have a correct idea of the representation. The Utopia of the imagination, is not the United States of our experience. By substituting fancy for judgment, romantic hopes are first formed to be afterwards destroyed.—Thus it often happens that the Irish emigrant who imagines he has escaped from the misery and oppression of his own misgoverned Island when he abandoned it, from pauperism and its attendant ills, finds a thousand difficulties stare him in the face, and which he was unprepared to meet, when landed on the wharfs of some of our sea-board cities. Even supposing him to have escaped the extravagant demands of ship agents, the dangers of the sea, confinement in the sick hospitals, &c., if he lands friendless, and without sufficient funds, his case, indeed, is one that may well excite our commisseration. He sees, on every side, strangers or countrymen, all engaged in the active pursuits of life, but too little interested in his affairs, or too actively occupied by their own, to pay him much attention. He finds himself a stranger in a strange land, without a roof to shelter him or land to cultivate, in want of

food or clothing, and instead of procuring employment and wages which would enable him to provide those necessaries of life, he finds hundreds reduced to the same miserable condition, whose most patient and persevering efforts, like his own, had proved unsuccessful. This condition of things, however, mostly results from a want of information and experience. There are others again, (and perhaps their case is even more worthy of commisseration), that land with a diminished purse, where they witness the distress of their fellow-passengers, and fear the approach of like misery, when they find their funds give way under the numerous impositions practised on them, and when they cannot discover any possible means of immediately improving their condition, take the fatal resolution of returning to the land of their birth, with all future prospects blasted, with the inevitable certainty of sinking far beneath their former condition in life, and perhaps doomed for the rest of their days to a hopeless pauperism. Instances of this kind are, unfortunately, too numerous to be merely suppositions, and should, therefore, oblige the intending emigrant to calculate his chances before leaving the land of his fathers, and the home of his affections.

In the present social disorganization of Ireland, it would be a matter of difficulty for one who had not resided there for the last decade of years, to say what classes of its inhabitants should emigrate, and what remain. It has been a subject of perplexity to veteran politicians, in speculating on her future prospects, to decide whether the signs of the times indicate a progressive downward tendency, or

a hope of her regeneration. The question of political amelioration is one completely subservient at the present time to the problem of the material subsistence of the people. How long it may continue so, we profess ourselves totally unable to conjecture. For our part, we believe that the transfer of the encumbered estates, and the prospect of a renewed and equitable arrangement in the relations of landlord and tenant, will be more immediately instrumental in advancing the industrial vigour of the country than any other measure likely to be submitted to the consideration of parliament. Political remedies will be of little avail to Ireland until her social wounds are healed. We should like to see the encumbered estates, in all instances, disposed of in small farm lots, that a resident and an industrious proprietory might be established in the country, and measures taken to prevent speculators from grasping landed property to such an extent as to renew and continue the old state of affairs. We are also of opinion, that persons able to command from one to three thousand pounds in Ireland could not better employ it than in securing a snug little estate, especially if they are practical agriculturists. The present low figures at which these lands sell, furnish opportunities for profitable investment. We believe, indeed, that even making allowances for county taxes, tithes, poor rates, &c., (rent being removed) an estate already improved, and at the rates of purchase given in the Irish papers, will be preferable to land obtained in any of the Eastern States of the Union for a corresponding sum. Besides, with an independent yeomanry resident in the country, and therefore identi-

fied with all her interests, the numbers of able bodied poor that now crowd the workhouses or receive relief therefrom, would be diminished, and employment could be more readily obtained, as employers would be more numerous, and the curse of absenteeism would be removed. Persons in possession of the above-named amount of capital, and who from the fact of possessing it, we must suppose accustomed to the conveniences, luxuries and habits of old established intercourse with persons occupying an exalted station of life, would, perhaps, dispose of it in a more satisfactory and profitable manner in landed investments at home than they could in the United States.*

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* A really practicable and excellent idea has been carried out, in the establishment of the "Irish Freehold Land Investment Society." We shall extract from its "prospectus" sufficient matter to explain its nature and objects:—

By that salutary statute, entitled the 6th and 7th Wm IV, c. 32, 1st section, it was enacted—

"That it should and might be lawful for any number of persons in Great Britain and Ireland, to form themselves into and establish Societies for the purpose of raising, by the monthly or other subscriptions of the several members of such Societies, shares, not exceeding the value of £150 for each share, such subscriptions not to exceed in the whole 20s per month for each share, a stock or fund for the purpose of enabling each member thereof to receive out of the funds of such Society the amount or value of his or her shares therein, to erect or purchase one or more Dwelling-house or Dwelling-houses, or other real or Leasehold Estate, to be secured by way of Mortgage to such Society, until the amount or value of his or her shares should be fully repaid to such Society, with the interest thereon, and all fines and other payments incurred in respect thereof." And by the 4th section, the provisions of the Friendly Society Acts of 10 George IV, cap. 56, and 4 and 5 Wm. IV, c. 40, are extended to this Act.

Amongst the many advantages derived under these statutes is a total exemption from Stamp duty on all the Mortgages executed to the Society. The Building Societies established all through England under these Acts have been signally successful; and "The National Freehold Land Society" in London, established under the same statutes, in a short space of time, by such small shares as £30 each (sufficient, however, to attain an English 40s. Freehold), payable by monthly

When in the course of our subsequent chapters, we treat of the probable expenses of sea voyage, inland journey, prices of land, and expenses of living in the United States, the capability of parties emigrating, and the expediency of such a course, must form subjects for their own consideration. It is our endeavour,

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instalments of 4s. per share, acquired and divided amongst the members landed property to the value of £40,000—nay, more, it appears that, taking all the branches through England together, they have, within one year, received such subscriptions to the amount of £150,000!!—(Vide report at the Birmingham meeting, November, 1850.)

Looking at these plain facts, and recollecting the great and peculiar facility now afforded in Ireland for the purchase of land under the Incumbered Estates Act, with a title as strong and as indefeasible as the united power of the Sovereign and the Legislature can confer, is it not time, high time, for Irishmen to shake off their lethargy, and emulate the good example which their fellow-subjects have shown them. Such opportunities as the present period offers cannot, within any conceivable period of time, be again presented. The soil of Ireland is rapidly changing hands; and it behoves the people speedily to avail themselves of the facile means now presented by the present Society to obtain as large a portion of the land as their legitimate means will enable them to secure. By the second section of the Joint-stock Company's Act, 7 and 8 Victoria, c. 110, all Societies established, in pursuance of the 6 and 7 Wm. IV, cap. 32, are expressly exempted from the operation of that Act; so that no liability whatever, of any description, attaches to any Shareholder in this Society beyond the payment of the amount of his subscription, according to the rules of the Society.

OBJECTS AND MEANS OF THE SOCIETY.

1st. By weekly or monthly subscriptions, not exceeding 20s per month, nor £150 for each share, to raise a fund which shall enable every member to purchase or receive an allotment of Land with Freehold title, equivalent in value to the amount of his share, and sufficient to qualify him for the Electoral Franchise.

2nd. From time to time, according as a sufficient fund is accumulated, the Directors to purchase Lands in the name of the Trustees, and with the aid of proper surveyors to divide such Lands into suitable lots of equal value.

3rd. By ballot to distribute the lots amongst the members whose names shall be drawn at each allotment, taking from each member a mortgage to the Trustees, to secure the payment of the balance of his share, by the weekly or monthly subscriptions before mentioned.

4th. To register each member who obtains a freehold, on

so far as practicable, to divest the emigrant of romantic or extravagant notions so often excited, and to present stern realities. He must be prepared (unless furnished with abundance of that lever of inconveniencies, money), to encounter many privations on ship-board, impositions from the moment he leaves home to the moment of his arrivrl at his destined location, anxiety of mind, physical exposure, and a total change of position in a new country. The success or disappointment that awaits his efforts there, may be the result of unforeseen casualties, but are for the most part dependent on his own conduct. The case of sickness on arrival, and consequent detention under expenses of not only one but perhaps many members of a family, might be adduced as one of many instances that frequently occur. But

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his receiving his allotment, if he so desire it, without any reference to any political party.

GOVERNMENT OF THE SOCIETY.

1st. At the first monthly meeting, which will be held on New Year's Day, Wednesday, 1st January, 1851, at the Provisional Committee Rooms, the Shareholders shall elect three Trustees, in whose names all the funds of the Society shall be vested and placed in Bank, according as they are collected, pending the purchase of any Estate.

2nd. The Shareholders shall in like manner elect Nine persons to act as Managing Directors, for one year from the period of their election, Five of such persons to form a quorum.

3rd. The Shareholders shall in like manner appoint a permanent Secretary, a Chief Surveyor, Solicitor, and Counsel, to manage the affairs of the Society, under the control of the Board of Directors.

4th. In like manner to select the Bankers of the Society.

5th. At such Monthly Meeting to receive the Rules prepared pursuant to the above Act of 6th and 7th of Wm. IV,, cap. 32, and certified by the Barrister appointed by the Crown for certifying the Rules of Friendly Societies.

Applications for Shares and Provincial agencies, to be addressed to, PATRICK BROPHY, Secretary, pro tem, to the Provisional Committee, 38 Lower Ormond Quay, Dublin.

although the best laid plans, wisest course of conduct, and most matured considerations may not always turn to the emigrant's advantage, yet in the vast majority of instances there can be no reasonable doubt of their contributing to his success.

These previous considerations entered upon, and the resolution of emigrating taken, the questions remaining are, in what manner the emigrant may dispose of his property and effects to the greatest advantage, how he may manage his money with greatest economy on his outward passage, and afterwards on his arrival. Let him resolve to act promptly, and travel without delay, until he reaches the scene of his future labours; and, above all, let him have a sufficient knowledge of the country he is about to enter, and the object he has in view. Thus time will be saved, useful intelligence obtained, and irresolution and trifling afterwards prevented. He will have entered on the surest way of building up for himself or his family a comfortable home; and having made those provisions for future independence, which will elevate him in the social scale, and enable him to place others in a like position.

CHAPTER II.

Preparation for the voyage—Acts of Parliament of Great Britain and Passenger Laws of the United States—Laws of the State Legislatures—Necessary articles for use and comfort—Useless equipage—Hints for a sea voyage as to economy, stores, baggage, &c—Time for embarkation—Port of arrival.

The immediate preparation for a voyage

across the atlantic, will first engage the Emigrant's attention. He would do well in the first instance to direct a letter, containing all queries which he might wish to have answered, to some of the ship owners or their agents, and he will either receive a written reply, or a printed pamphlet comprising the necessary amount of information.* He must not however suppose that the rates of passage given in these documents, are set down at the lowest figures; and hence he must not be in two great a hurry to close with these terms. He should defer this, until his arrival at the seaport, from which he intends to embark.

There are certain laws bearing on Emigration, and provision made for its regulation, by the Parliament of Great Britain, the Congress of the United States, and the several Legislatures of the maratime States. These provisions are enforced under heavy penalties, and a complaint made by the Emigrant to the proper authorities in case of violation, will, if supported by sufficient evidence, meet with redress, or the infliction of the penalty. It will not be necessary to give the various requirements of these provisions, but we think it necessary to furnish the following extract from the Passenger Laws of England. Sec. 6, cap. 107, declares:—

"That on board every ship carrying passengers on any such voyage as aforesaid, there shall be issued to the Passengers a supply of water, at the rate of at least three quarts for

* A very useful pamphlet can be had gratuitously, by applying to the office of W. TAPSCOTT & Co, St. George's Buildings, Regent's Road, Liverpool, or 86 South st, New York. It contains much information, and valuable hints in preparing for a Transatlantic Voyage.

each passenger per day, and that there shall also be issued, at convenient times, not less often than twice a week, a supply of provisions after the rate of seven pounds of bread, biscuit, flour, oatmeal, or rice, per week, provided that one-half at least of the supply shall consist of bread or biscuit, and that potatoes may be employed to the extent of the remaining half of the supply, five pounds of potatoes being computed as equal to one pound of the other articles enumerated."

The Laws of the United States require each passenger to be furnished with a weekly allowance of 6 lbs. of meal, 2½ lbs Navy bread, 1 lb. wheat flour, 1 lb. salt pork, free from "bone," 3 quarts of water per day, 2 oz. of tea, 8 oz. of sugar, 8 oz. of molasses, and vinegar. Children also, under twelve years of age (not including infants) are to be furnished according to the recent Act of Congress, with 7 pounds of bread stuffs per week, including 1 pound of salt pork, half allowance of tea, sugar and molasses, and full allowance of water and vinegar. This supply must consist of wholesome food, in the several items. The other regulations of these acts have especial reference to the cleanliness, room, &c, of the vessel, and to prevent its being overcrowded.†

The laws of the several state legislatures on this head, have reference only to municipal regulations, and come in force only on the arrival of the vessel at the several ports. To give a general idea of these regulations, we will cite only some of the provisions contained in

† Vide. Laws of the U. S. for 1847. Act of Congress, approved February 22d.

the statutes of the State of New York. *

Within twenty-five hours after landing, the master of every passenger ship is bound to make a report in writing by oath or affirmation to the Mayor of the City of New York, regarding the number, names, places of birth, age, occupation, condition, &c, of each passenger. He must give a several bond to the people of the State, under a penalty of three hundred dollars for each passenger included in the report, (each bond endorsed by two or more sureties,) to exclude for five years from the date of such bond, each and every city, town or county in the State, from the expense of relief or support for each person named in the bond. The Commissioners of Emigration are required severally or jointly to examine into the condition of the Emigrants on board each vessel, that if any shall be found among them "lunatic, idiot, deaf, dumb, blind or infirm persons, not members of emigrating families, or who, from attending circumstances are likely to become permanently a public charge, or who have been paupers in any other country, or who from sickness existing at the time of departing from the foreign port are, or are likely soon to become a public charge," they may report to the Mayor, who will require a bond as before from the owners or consignees of the vessel, to the amount of five hundred dollars for each such person, to continue in force ten years from its date. The other sections of the first chapter refer to the

* Extracted from "Revised Laws concerning passengers in Vessels coming to the city of New York, and for the protection of Emigrants. Condensed and revised by order of the Commissioners of Emigration. New York: 1850.

duties of Commissioners—manner of enforcing penalties—Marine Hospital and its government —duties of physicians, nurses, orderlies, &c. at quarantine buildings. Chapter the second empowers the Commissioners to lease or purchase suitable docks or piers in the city of New York, where alien passengers shall be landed—to make such regulations as shall preserve order there, and exclude persons not duly licensed from entering—emigrant boarding houses must be licensed, and the keepers give security for their proper conduct, and that of the agents and runners in their employ. "Every keeper of such boarding-house shall, under a penalty of fifty dollars, cause to be kept conspicuously posted in the public rooms of such house, in the English, German, Dutch, French and Welch languages, and printed upon business cards, to be kept for distribution as hereinafter provided, a list of the rates of prices which will be charged emigrants per day and week, for board and lodging, and also the rates for separate meals, which card shall contain the name of the keeper of such house, together with its number and the name of the street in which such house is situated." Sec. 3. "No keeper of any emigrant boarding-house shall have any lien upon the baggage and effects of any emigrant for boarding, lodging, or any other account whatever, for any greater sum than shall be due from such emigrant for boarding, lodging, according to the rates or prices so posted, as above provided." Sec. 4. "All solicitors for emigrant boarding-houses, passenger offices, forwarding or transportation lines, must be licensed, must be native or naturalized citizens of the United States, must

wear a conspicuous badge, with the words, 'licensed emigrant runner' inscribed thereon, with their names and the numbers of their licenses. The Health Officer having inspected the vessel, the Commissioners can authorize approved persons to board Emigrant vessels, for the purpose of putting the passengers on their guard against fraud and imposition. No person or persons shall exercise the vocation of booking emigrant passengers, or taking money for their inland fare, or for the transportation of the luggage of such passengers, without keeping a public office for the transaction of such business, nor without the license of the Mayor of the City in which such office shall be located." Sec. 7. "No scales or weights shall be employed in such office or place for weighing luggage, but such as have been sealed and inspected by the City Inspector of Weights; it shall be open to the Commissioners or their agents; it shall contain a list of prices or fares of passage, and the price per 100 lbs. for the transportation of luggage to the principal places to which the proprietors undertake to convey passengers; these prices must be conspicuously posted in the English, German, Dutch, French and Welch languages. Tickets must be issued, signed by the name of the person or persons in whose name the establishment is conducted, which shall state the time and place of such issue, the number of persons so paying, the distance in miles to the place for which pay is received, the amount so received, the number of pounds of baggage and the price per hundred pounds for its transportation." Sec. 7. "No government officer of the United States, of the State of New York,

or in the employment of the Commissioners of Emigration, shall solicit custom for any transportation line, or shall be interested in any way, directly or indirectly, in the forwarding of emigrants." Sec. 8. "The Commissioners are to appoint agents, clerks and servants to enforce the due performance of these duties, to furnish a reasonable compensation to them, and to appoint one agent at least for the cities of Albany, Rochester and Buffalo, to make an annual Report to the Legislature, and an affidavit respectively each for himself, to the effect that directly or indirectly, by virtue of his office, he has not through himself or agents been instrumental in the business of bonding or transporting emigrants, &c. The third chapter provides for the establishment of hospitals at Sandy Hook.

According to circumstances most of the State laws have peculiar regulations, in general of minor importance to those already given. Penalties by fine or imprisonment are annexed to a violation of their provisions; these penalties can be enforced by the Commissioners of Emigration, the Mayor of the City, or Agent, whose official duty it may be to control the actions of persons by whom they may be infringed. The British Consul is the officer to be applied to, on a complaint coming under the cognizance of the English laws being preferred. An action at the proper tribunals can be preferred against any persons under the jurisdiction of the United States. There are also Emigrant Societies, which will endeavor on application at their office, to apply a remedy for any fraud, imposition or outrage practised upon Emigrants; so that no emigrant who

will act promptly and on proper grounds, need fear, in most instances, the perpetration of outrage or the commission of injury and injustice with impunity.

It must be remarked, that although the amount of provision enumerated above, be according to the intention of the Act of Parliament, calculated to keep away want and starvation on a long voyage, it will not perhaps suffice for the sufficient support of the passenger. Hence, he must in addition buy in a supply of food that will be capable of sustaining him, over and above the time requisite for a reasonably long voyage. It seldom happens indeed that a vessel starting from any of the British ports, to Boston or New York, will not make the passage in six weeks; but this would not always be a safe calculation. The voyage to Quebec and New Orleans usually occupies a longer time. This matter depends on the winds, the trim and swiftness of the vessel, experience of the master, &c. Ten weeks is the longest time specified as deemed necessary for accomplishing the voyage to North America, and the appointment of vessels for this length of time is attended to in the provisions of the Act of Parliament. The Emigrant must, therefore, use his own discretion in the matter of sea store and the quantity of supply. The number of those emigrating in company will have a bearing on this consideration. As to the quality of food, this will furthermore depend on the preference, habit, taste, means, &c, of the consumer; however, in all instances it should be procured of a wholesome kind, and such as will not be liable to spoil on the voyage. The stores most gen-

erally preferred on ship board are potatoes, oatmeal, wheat, flour, fine or shorts, bacon, eggs, butter, &c, in good preservation. The inferior kind of Navy Bread served out on board is considered as hard fare, especially to those not accustomed to it; an excellent kind can be procured at an advanced price. It must be added also, that in a general manner, the pork furnished is not of a good quality. A supply of biscuit is in some degree requisite; since the accommodations necessary for kneading and baking bread are indifferent, or rather not furnished, unless by the ingenuity of the emigrant, who must use, for instance, the lid of one of his travelling chests for a kneading-board. The same must serve for his table, sitting bench, and other purposes, in what is ostentatiously called second cabin, as well as in the steerage. Knives, spoons, cups, plates, cooking utensils, must be furnished by the emigrants, unless he take passage in the First Cabin, where he has comfortable berths, and all other requisites are procured by the owners of the vessel. Bedding is also required, as the berths are unprovided with mattresses, or covering, and usually of such dimensions as will only allow two persons to each, but in some instances three are inconveniently crowded together. Washing buckets can be procured on board; soap must be furnished by the emigrant.

A very injudicious proceeding on the part of those intending to emigrate is the taking out too much clothing, effects, &c., with a cumbersome equipage of trunks, boxes and packages. A mistaken notion often prevails, that clothing and many other articles are unreasonably dear

in the United States; and that therefore it is a matter of economy to be well provided with these necessaries. The contrary, however, is the case, so far as the humbler emigrant is concerned; and he will find, moreover, that most of the clothing he takes out is altogether unsuited to the climate and country into which he is about to enter. This is more especially the case when he goes out as a mere adventurer, having no certainty as to employment on landing, or no friendly home to proceed to without impediment or delay. A single person might easily dispose of a sufficient wardrobe in a small trunk, or a large carpet bag; a family need not require more than one or two compact boxes. Dirty clothing, useless articles, &c., will cost more for inland transportation than they are worth. We consider all such articles unnecessary as they can be easily and more cheaply procured in the United States than at home. Besides, a large amount of luggage will be a subject of constant annoyance to the emigrant, both on ship-board and on landing. He will not be allowed on board ship to retain under his birth more than one or two convenient boxes, with, perhaps, a few bags containing his sea-store for immediate use, cooking utensils, table equipage, &c. The rest will be consigned to the hold, and admission only allowed to them occasionally. On landing, the variety of packages to be conveyed to boarding-houses, to steamboats, railways, and public conveyances, by draymen, porters, or cabmen, through crowded streets and bustling throngs, will keep the owner's mind continually on the rack lest any of them should be left behind, lost or stolen. The expense

of freight are also a serious matter; and the diminished resources of the emigrant, which might, perhaps, be barely sufficient to take him on to his destination, may not defray the transport of his inconvenient charge. It often happens that he is obliged to leave his baggage to the care or rather to the neglect of some tavern keeper, until he can procure the money to have it sent after him; and, perhaps, when it will arrive, if it ever does, the articles which were of little worth when he abandoned them will be completely valueless when they are received.

The economical hints we may be enabled to furnish for the voyage, must be compressed within a a small compass, and are necessarily imperfect. Flour and meal should be stored in bags of convenient size; potatoes may be best preserved in barrels, the tops being well secured with covers, with hinges, and a padlock; tin plates and vessels, which being liable to slide from the table when the ship lurches, will not be subject to the mischances of brittle ware; milk boiled with loaf-sugar, in the proportion of one pound of sugar to the quart, and bottled when cool, will keep sweet during the whole voyage;—this latter article would be a positive luxury at sea, since without it coffee and tea, becomes nauseous and unpalatable.—The cooking is performed on deck, over coal or wood fires, contained in long grates. Utensils for cooking must be procured to suit, and are generally for sale at the port of debarkation; they can be had in sizes to accommodate the company for whom intended. As there is great inconvenience and delay experienced in waiting for turns at the fires, the emigrant

should make up his mind to dispense with those vessels necessary to prepare the requisites of a dainty repast. In stormy weather the fires cannot be lighted, and the fare of the passenger must be confined to cold victuals already prepared, or a square of buttered biscuit. These privations seldom last more than one or two days in succession. The vessels of most use will be a frying pan with a long handle, a a double tinned can for boiling potatoes, oatmeal. &c., or a large saucepan, a pot of small size, a light tin kettle, a coffee-pot or tea-pot, of the same material, and ladle.

A fair allowance for a single person at sea may be made from the following list of provisions—say for ten weeks: 6 pecks of potatoes, 2 or 3 quartern loaves, baked hard and cut in slices will be found agreeable,—unless thoroughly baked and afterwards kept dry, it will be liable to mildew, and become perfectly useless; 7lbs of fine ship bread; 12lbs of flour; the same of oatmeal; 10lbs of good beef or pork, well salted in brine, or hams and bacon, well saved; some dozen or two of red herrings or haddock well dried; some dozens of fresh eggs, packed in salt; 4 or 5lbs of sweet butter, which will be much used by sea voyagers; a very small quantity of tea, which is not much liked on ship board; 1lb of coffee or chocolate, either of which will be liked more; 2lbs of treacle in a flaggon; 1lb of sugar; some white puddings, rice, pepper, mustard, a few candles and covered lantern; a few oranges and lemons, which are very agreeable at times to the taste, especially with a tendency to nausea or sea sickness; some cheese; a good supply of turnips, carrots, parsnips, and onions for

broth; 1 bottle of vinegar to correct the taste of the water served out; some safe medicines as castor oil, epsom salts, rhubarb, pills, &c.; and some oatmeal baked into hard, well-fired, flat cakes, and prepared on the griddle, (not in the oven) will be used by those accustomed to this kind of fare. All these articles should be well packed in a convenient manner for occasional access. The proportions required for a family, in which case there will be less waste, may be estimated from what is here given. If any provisions be left, they can be sold on landing, and more suitable necessaries and refreshments provided, such as butchers' meat and bakers' bread, which are eagerly longed for after a tedious voyage.

Many emigrants have had reason to regret the expenditure of money before embarkation that would have been of much use to them on their arrival. Besides articles of use and convenience, others have been purchased on speculation, without reference to the demands, tariff or manufacture of the country to which they are brought. These little transactions prove, in most instances, complete failures, and never can be safely entered upon, if not by a person of intelligence who has resided in the United States, and knows the quality of articles, and the prices they will bring in that country. The more cumbersome tools of mechanics, and especially those of agriculturists should not be brought, as these can be procured at cheap rates in the United States; besides, the agricultural implements of the old country are in a general way altogether unsuited to the farming operations of the new world.

The time selected for emigration is also of

much importance, since it must determine in a great measure the period of arrival. Those persons who expect to take up their residence in New York, Boston, or any of the Atlantic towns and cities, should embark as soon as possible after the middle or close of January, that they may arrive at the breaking up of winter, which is the opening of the business season in those cities; this time affords the best chance of employment, as the tide of emigration has but then commenced. Those who intend to reside in New Orleans, or in any of the Southern cities or towns, should make an effort to land by the middle of November or soon afterwards: business then opens in those places, and the prevailing and dangerous epedemic, yellow fever, has subsided or disappeared. The length of time passed in those places, the longer it be before the next return of the sickly season, the more the stranger becomes acclimated and capable of supporting the trying ordeal of the intense heat of summer and the scourge it generally brings. The yellow fever, generally commences at New Orleans in the beginning of July, sometimes later, and ends towards the beginning of November. The first slight frosts are said by the inhabitants of New Orleans to be the signal for its departure. Unacclimated persons comprise the greatest proportion of its victims; and on this account emigrants who intend to reside here or only make it a point in passing up the Mississippi, should know how to take advantage of the most favorable time to effect a landing. Those intending to make the interior of Pennsylvania, Virginia, Southern Ohio, Kentucky, Indiana, Illinois or Missouri,

their destination, should start about the first of March, and on no account defer their departure to the middle of September; otherwise, on arrival the canals and rivers might be closed with ice, and the journey inland could be only performed with great inconvenience, interruption and expense—stages being the only vehicles of conveyance where railroads do not run. Those bound for Michigan, Wisconsin, Iowa, Northern Illinois, Ohio, New York, Maine, New Hampshire and Connecticut, might leave home by the first of April, and not defer their start after the middle of August —the Northern Lakes, rivers and canals are seldom open, until the middle of April, and often closed with ice on the first of November.

Many persons arrive at the sea-ports of the United States at very unfavorable junctures, and are exposed in consequence to much hardships. They are obliged either to remain there during the winter, at a ruinous expense, or pursue their journey to the interior, through regions of snow, in the midst of winter, in vehicles open by night and day, the weather intensely cold, and the stages by which they are conveyed demand exorbitant fares. These hardships are heightened in the case of large families, delicate health, want of proper clothing, females, and very aged or very young persons. A reasonable calculation before leaving home would avert these calamities, and enable the emigrant to prosecute his inland route with facility and despatch, to the scene of his final destination.

CHAPTER III.

Selection of sea port for embarkation—Passenger vessels—Price of passage—Mode of action in securing it—Making of exchanges—Impositions practised at Liverpool—Fraternization of families or single emigrants—Regulations to secure health, comfort and cleanliness at sea—Clothing—How to proceed on arriving at the port of debarkation.

The usual seaports to which Irish emigrants proceed in order to take passage for the United States are Dublin, Cork, Belfast, Limerick, Galway and Waterford. When they leave Ireland for this purpose, Liverpool is the city selected. We must say, unhappily for the trade of Ireland, and the comfort of her exiles, the vessels that issue from her ports are badly provided with those conveniences necessary to preserve the health of passengers and ensure their accommodation. They are generally brigs, low between decks, badly ventilated, and small in proportion to the number of passengers taken on board. Their destination is mostly to some one or other of the North American Colonies, and the recommendation of a cheap passage is about all they can offer; although we have known instances, in which passage was obtained at cheaper rates in some of the Liverpool liners. Unless the emigrant intends to make some point in Northern New York, or along the Southern shores of the Great Lakes, nothing can be saved by taking passage for Quebec; and something must, in all probability, be lost if he arrive at any of the other cities of the British colonies, on his

way to the United States. Persons residing in any of the Irish cities above named, who have some knowledge of vessels and the rates of passage, and who can wait an opportunity for embarkation, might do well to save the additional expense of a trip to Liverpool, especially if a vessel be advertised to proceed directly to the States. Those living in the interior of the country, and who, from their position, have little knowledge of vessels, would in most instances, if their means allow, do well to proceed directly to Liverpool. By so doing, little delay is experienced, and the number of passenger vessels daily departing from that port, creates a competition amongst the proprietors in favor of the emigrants. The facilities afforded for travelling by railways, radiating from Dublin in all directions, will furnish another inducement. Nothing should be brought from home but clothing, and those few requisites for the voyage which can be most conveniently procured there; no delay should be made in Dublin, from which the channel steamer starts daily, and all provisions for the voyage can be obtained more conveniently and at cheap prices in Liverpool or Dublin.

The day of clearance for vessels, their names, tonnage, and owners are advertised in the papers of the city, from which they are about to depart. If they do not sail at the time appointed, unless detained by unfavorable wind or weather, expenses for each subsequent day's delay can be obtained from the captain or owner of the vessel, according to the provisions of the Passengers' Act. Ships are not allowed to carry passengers unless they be at least five feet between decks; and for every

five tons of registered burden only three passengers can be embarked.* Notwitstanding these regulations instances of their violation are numerous, particularly respecting the delay incurred—the money to which passengers are legally entitled not being demanded, is seldom paid by the ship owners.

The largest sailing vessels between New York and Liverpool engaged in the passenger business, are named "Liners," and rate at 1000 to 1500 tons. These vessels are three masted,and possess holds of very capacious dimensions, with good room between decks.—Another class of vessels named brigs, rate at from 700 to 900 tons, having two masts, with square sails, but less roomy and commodious. American built vessels are generally preferred for speed, whilst at the same time they carry enormous cargoes. The speed and strength of a vessel depends in a great measure on the model, materials of which it is built, rigging, and late construction. The most approved principles in ship building are, that the greatest breadth of hull must be before the centre, tapering off gradually towards the stern, and that the general bulk of the vessel be proportioned to its length and breadth. Speed may be gained by vessels of lengthened hull, but they are not so easily turned in tacking,and are apt to roll through the waves instead of breasting them; vessels of shorter hull are apt to pitch,—both failings being equally dangerous. These hints, or the recommendation of a disinterested person, knowing the capa-

* Thus, for a ship of 1000 tons burden, 600 passengers may be taken on board.

bilities of vessels, might be of use in the selection of the vessel in which the emigrant intends to depart. New painting and trim appearance is also apt to deceive the choice of the uninitiated.

To give some idea of the exactions of ship owners or their agents, we will state the demands usually made for passage in first class ships, especially if the applicant be supposed good for the amount.† The prices demanded for passage from Liverpool to New York, Boston, and New Orleans will be as follows :— Cabin and found, $80, or £16 ; second cabin, $25, or £5 ; steerage, $20, or £4. The disparity of fare will be apparent when we state the actual sums for which passage has been obtained to one or other of the latter cities,and this from reliable information: Cabin $40, or £8 ; second cabin, $18, or £3 15s, to $20, or £4 ; steerage, $10 or £2, to $16 or £3 6s. 8d. Children under 14 years of age are generally charged one-half; those under 7 years, one-third of the full price ; and no charge is made for children under twelve months old. We

† In the course of these remarks we omit all mention of the Atlantic Steamers, as being removed beyond the consideration of most emigrants. However, we believe that at no distant day, when the number of steam ships shall be increased, and the fares lowered (as the owners can well afford to do) many of the emigrating middle classes will be induced to take passage in them, and even the poorer emigrants. There arealready indications of that state of things becoming the order of the day, from the fact that several Steamers have been launched for the first time on the Atlantic, within the past year, of magnificent build and superior accommodations. The steamer Viceroy, that sailed on the first of June from Galway to New York, and which charged for her accommodations only $125, or £25, equal in every respect to those of the Cunard Line, and lower by $50, or £10, shows to what extent reductions in fare may be yet extended. Perhaps one half or less of the sum already named, would at no distant day be considered a reasonable remuneration by the owners.

have known instances in which emigrants paid a greater amount of passage money for a birth in the steerage, than others did for a second-cabin passage, which is usually considered more desirable and commodious. We have known also persons emigrating with equal accommodations, some of whom were charged more than double the amount demanded of others.

The Commissioners of Emigration in London have agents in Liverpool and the chief Irish ports, whose duties are to act according to the instructions furnished them, and give in all cases reliable information to the emigrant. In order to procure a passage on the most reasonable terms, the emigrant must proceed to the different offices of the owners of the vessels, and not to agents. Having compared their respective and lowest terms, with the accommodation, swiftness and time for departure of their several vessels, which can be generally inspected at the docks, they will then be prepared to make up their minds for a final decision. The month of April furnishes a greater choice of ships, as that is the busy season of emigration, although if a great number of emigrants have already arrived to take shipping the passage will rise in proportion. Fares are somewhat lower as the season advances;—this however is not of material consequence to the emigrant. The friends of the intending emigrant residing in the United States, might sometimes pre-engage a passage with advantage. In general, it would be better to send a check in favour of the emigrant to be drawn on some solvent and convenient local bank.—This is particularly recommended when the

passenger business is rather dull in the old country seaports.

Before leaving the port from which the vessel sails, the emigrant should convert all his bank paper into silver or gold, which will but represent their value when he arrives in the United States. He must then be mindful of its safe keeping and disbursement. Some persons consign money to bankers or others before departure, receiving checks for the amount on their arrival; this mode of procedure, although it may save additional vigilance on ship board, is highly inexpedient for the generality of persons. Besides the liability of drafts not being duly honored on presentation, the drawer must have some discount for his trouble; instances have been known in which the bills had been drawn thirty or sixty days after sight, when of course the emigrant would have to wait for this length of time after his arrival, before he can legally recover the amount. He will thus be left without means, in a strange land, or be obliged to submit to considerable sacrifices in order to obtain cash for his drafts. Swindling is sometimes resorted to, as in the case of an unsuspecting person, who was induced through the recommendation of an Agent to part with his gold sovereigns for the paper of a worthless bank in the United States; when the bills were presented in New York in payment, they were found to be of no value whatever. Care must be taken in the selection of a respectable lodging-house for the short time it will be necessary to remain, before removal on ship board.

The unsophisticated habits of most emigrants will render them peculiarly liable to imposi-

tion in most sea-ports, and especially in Liverpool. From the moment of arrival there the emigrant is surrounded by bullying draymen, who, if out of the sight of the city police, will often endeavor to extort for services more than their legal demand; sometimes confederates will be called to their assistance, and the luggage of the emigrant divided on two drays, although it would not be an overload for one, and double charge is then insisted on; sometimes a blustering fellow will attempt to enforce payment for a few moment's time, which will be lost through his own delay. The whipster, and the emigrant or boarding-house runner, are ever on the watch to entrap their victims. Numbers of runners may be in the employment of one house and company, and, moreover, may be the compatriots of the emigrant; their movements are combined in the most dexterous manner imaginable; they dodge the movements of the emigrant they design to entrap, recommend him as disinterested persons to a certain house or office, appeal to one another for confirmation of false statements, and study the vey lineaments of his countenance; if he be accompanied by a companion, they will be so stationed as to overhear their conversation and be governed by it—this is especially the case when issuing from a passenger office. Boatmen, when removing the passengers' luggage on board a vessel lying out from the docks, demand exorbitant fares, particularly if the emigrant be of a mild and yielding nature; if he attempts to remonstrate with them, a volley of oaths and blasphemies ensues, a threat is made of pitching himself and baggage overboard if the demand be not

complied with; of course this threat is never put in execution, but forms only part of the system of harassing the mind, playing on the fears, and extorting the money of the owner. The object of these characters is to extract as much money as the emigrant can afford to lose —to obtain by swindling, advantages that could not be obtained in fair business transactions.

Families about to embark should provide a common store, and a community of feeling should induce them to band together on board with a view to economize in the regulation of their affairs. Single persons emigrating would do well to combine in parties of two or three, being joint partners in outfit, cooking, and expenses. Better if they were neighbors or acquaintances at home, as in such cases greater confidence would be established, and mutual good offices rendered in case of sickness on board.

Sea sickness must be encountered by most fresh water sailors, and cannot be prevented; but the general health of a crew in most other instances, will depend on fresh air and cleanliness. To obtain the former, the passenger should be on the upper deck the greater portion of the day, when the weather will permit —the sea breezes are peculiarly salubrious.— Cleanliness may be in a great measure personally attained by the frequent use of soap and water, dusting of berths, and airing of beds;— if these methods be not adopted, both berths and clothes will be filled with vermin. To ensure the general cleanliness of the crew, a system is usually adopted at the suggestion of the captain, regulations are further made to secure

order and discipline. In the promotion of objects so essential to their health and convenience, the passengers should lend a willing and active co-operation. Should the captain be neglectful in these particulars, which can scarcely be the case, the passengers should resolve on some means of enforcing sanitory regulations. The following method would be advisable. Two or three influential persons on board should call the passengers together before clearing from the port, and represent the advantages derivable from regularity and cleanliness, draw up a set of rules on the following plan, and then submit them for general approval. *First*, all male passengers to rise at a stated hour, 15 or 20 minutes given to dress below, washing to take place on the upper deck. *Secondly*, the female passengers should then rise, act in like manner, and remove the beds and covering to the waste parts of the vessel above for the purpose of airing. *Thirdly*, after the fires are lighted, one portion of the passengers should be engaged in scraping, sweeping and washing the floors and berths below, taking care to displace boxes and packages, that all dirt may be removed, whilst another set attends to the fires and cooking.—*Fourthly*, after meals the floors should be again swept and the dirt thrown overboard. *Fifthly*, after night, or when expedient to retire for rest, the male passengers should go on deck at an appointed hour to allow the females to undress for the night, and at the time expired return for a like purpose. *Sixthly*, the passengers should contribute for the purpose of employing some one or more of their number, to attend to the lighting of fires, supply of

coal, regulation of turns for cooking purposes; this little salary to be paid every week, to ensure the faithful observance of these duties. Most differences among passengers arise from the undue monopoly of fires. *Lastly*, an energetic, active, influential person or number of persons, should be named, with irresponsible powers to put these regulations, or such others as might be deemed advisable, in force. Washing of clothes should not be neglected, when water and buckets are furnished for this purpose. Those who are altogether dependent on the provisions furnished by the ship, should be careful to avoid waste; some persons improvidently consume in a few days their weekly allowance, and are in consequence obliged to remain unprovided the remainder of the time. As before remarked, all persons are recommended to lay in some store in addition. Medicines are furnished by the captain in case of sickness, and any reasonable cause of complaint should be preferred to him, as he has the control of ship, crew, and passengers. In all efforts to produce harmony and order, which are frequently disturbed amongst so many persons, each passenger should consider himself a guardian of peace and good fellowship.

A set of clothing of inferior worth, is usually worn at sea; but, however course in texture, it is a matter of much consequence that it be kept in clean condition. In fact it would be impossible to dress with elegance or preserve spruceness of appearance in the steerage or second cabin of sailing vessels. It might however be done occasionally, as on Sunday's or Holydays, and by way of shifting and tidiness, for a day or two. Moreover, a person

should dress himself becomingly, when about to land ; as an appearance of neatness, will be a letter of recommendation he should not fail to produce amongst the people, with whom he is about to reside. Prepossessions not at all to their advantage are entertained against persons acting otherwise, and they are universally disliked and despised. The Irish small clothes are not worn in the United States; still, cleanliness is always preferred to the cut of the garment.

When about to disembark, passengers should not be in too great a hurry to leave the ship. They have the priviledge of remaining on board for a specified time after their arrival, and accommodations for cooking must be furnished by the captain. These regulations may save the expense of lodging on shore ; especially if the emigrant resolves to prosecute his inland journey without delay, which he had betterdo, if not resolved to make the city at which he lands his future place of residence. However, they will give him an opportunity of looking out for a respectable and suitable lodging, by leaving some member of his family or company on board, to take care of his effects. If he seeks a conveyance for inland transportation to any point, which can be daily obtained, by properly directed inquiries, he will not be put to the trouble and expence of a second removal of his effects ; but he would do well before leaving the port at which he arrives, to dispose of his superfluous seastore with some retail provision dealer or boarding-house keeper, at the current prices. He will thus be saved the expense of additional freightage ; and he can obtain fresh stores

at cheap rates, in those instances in which he will be obliged to furnish his own stock of provisions.

CHAPTER IV.

Quarantine regulations—Emigrant societies and intelligence offices—Immediate application for employment—Waste of money and time—City, town and country employments—Warning with regard to large towns and cities—Courage in surmounting first difficulties.

The sickness and mortality that sometimes prevail on shipboard, have occasioned the establishment of Marine Hospitals and Quarantine Grounds, for the reception of such persons as may be designated by the Health officer. These institutions are generally removed from the cities, near which they are located. The vessel on arriving at these places, is inspected by the Health officer, usually a physician; and if no prevailing epidemic, such as cholera, ship-fever, &c., be found on board, the vessel and the healthy portion of the passengers are allowed to proceed to the Docks or Wharfs. Sick persons are detained in Hospitals, and waited on until they recover, when the Health officer grants a discharge in writing.

In most of the seaports of the United States, there are charitable Associations, organized for the purpose of affording aid and advice to Emigrants. The Gentlemen composing these societies are actuated solely by humane motives, and discharge gratuitously the duties of their respective offices. In the cities of New

York and Boston, "Irish Emigrant Societies" are established.* Emigrants would do well to make early application at these offices, and information there obtained may be relied on, as there are no inducements for deception on the part of those affording it. So much cannot be said for Intelligence offices. These latter profess an extensive acquaintance with business wants, promise to procure situations and employments for those in need of them, on payment of a certain sum, and keep up those delusive hopes any time the applicant approaches them to enquire concerning his chances. In the vast majority of instances his

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*The office of the New York Irish Emigrant Society is situated at 22 Spruce street, and that of the Boston Irish Emigrant Society at 4 Congress square. An idea of the nature of these Associations will be obtained from the following extracts of a letter to the author, written by the Corresponding Secretary of the New York I. E. S., dated May 22d, 1850:

"The practical business of our Society consists, Firstly, In assisting the poorer classes of Irish people in this country in the transmission of funds to their friends at home. The great impositions and extortion practised in connection with this remitting business, imperatively demanded the attention of the Society. A fund is constantly maintained in the Bank of Ireland, upon which the Society draws, and a large number of drafts is annually remitted, rarely exceeding in amount £5, or £10. The business of the Society in this particular is regularly on the increase, and evidences the necessity to the Emigrant of some such reliable channel for remitting the little accumulations of his industry to his distressed friends at home.

The second feature of the Society's business is the Charity Fund. This is made up of donations and whatever the Society may realize from the Bill business. The drafts of the Society being sold at the regular rate of $5 to the £ sterling, when Exchange is low, a certain profit is realized. This profit is generally appropriated to the Charity Fund; and small though this must necessarily be, the number and hardship of the cases of distress relieved would exceed belief.

The third feature in the business is, the providing of information to Emigrants and situations to those in want of them. For this purpose, a regular office is maintained and an agent particularly employed The office is crowded daily with applicants, chiefly for situations as domestics or for hard labor."

hopes are disappointed, and relying on the promises made, the expectant defers from day to day his own unassisted endeavours to procure employment. How incapable the Intelligence offices are of accomplishing their engagements may be discovered from the fact, that they invariably reject the overture of payment on the part of the applicant only on condition he obtained a suitable and permanent situation through their agency.

A great object with the Emigrant should be (if not about to settle on land, or engage in business on his own account) to get early employment. To attain this object, immediate application should be made where it is likely to be obtained; and if an employment suited to the trade, occupation and expectation of the Emigrant cannot be had, he would do well to embrace any other he can find, and for which he may be qualified. Idleness and trifling away of time should be avoided, as habits of irresolution are thereby contracted and money wasted. Wages should not be so much a matter of cousideration as employment; for in proportion as the employer finds it his interest to continue a person he engages in his business, the wages will rise to the regular standard. By obtaining employment also, the person engaged will be relieved from all those harassing cares that beset his way amongst strangers in a strange country; he will be enabled to maintain himself until more favorable situations may offer, and in the meantime, he can be on the look out for such opportunities. Employment will be sooner discovered in the press and hurry of the business he follows, than by hanging idly about boarding-houses and tav-

erns, or running from one house or place to another. Persons should not be too credulous regarding reports of advanced wages or greater advantages to be obtained in distant parts of the country; certain employment procured is always preferable to uncertainties, and numbers who are induced to desert their present situation, find on arriving at another place, no possible chance of engagement, besides being out at purse from the expenses incurred in travelling. The first employment of an Emigrant is generally the most difficult to be obtained; he is not yet acquainted with the habits and requirements of those around him; a certain tact is required in making application for work, to which he is a stranger, and which experience alone will teach him; bodily and mental energies and faculties require to be exercised, which the condition of the country and example set by the people will gradually develope. Activity of mind and body, perseverance, industry and energy will always lead the way to profitable employment.

A large amount of money possessed after landing, has been often a cause of positive injury to the emigrant's prospect of immediate employment. Even the possession of a small sum by persons of indolent habits, or of an easy, unenterprising turn of mind, has often caused them to idle away time, that in their situation should be inconceivably precious. Expenses are daily accumulating, whilst their money is diminishing. This money if well employed might help them on to some profitable occupation. When the sum is of considerable amount, and intended for the purchase of a farm, or investment in some peculiar

trade or business, no delay should be admitted in disposing of it to advantage and before it has materially decreased. We have known unfortunate results from delays of this kind: persons setting out from home with a sufficient amount of money to clear the expenses of their journey, and purchase a small, comfortable estate in the Far West, have either never attained their object and location, or did so, only after years of toil and exertion.

The large cities may be preferable for some trades and professions; but in a general way, the emigrant should remove as far as possible from them. Of course, talent and abilities of the highest order, will have a greater chance of rising to distinction in these; but competition will be also greater. However, professional talents and acquirements undoubtedly respectable, have a chance of failure, and that for obvious reasons. Reputation has to be acquired and established, whilst the walks of all professions are already overcrowded. Legal professors have to acquire a knowledge of the practice of courts, the statute laws of States and General Government, &c. Medical practioners will find the prescriptions and practice of the climate and country left, materially altered in the country of their adoption. The difference is not so great in business transactions. Good, thorough, experienced book-keepers have a tolerable chance of success in the large cities, and when engaged receive respectable salaries. Shopmen and Clerks are not so fortunate, and of all other classes are least likely to succeed. Ingenious mechanics, such as mathematical and mechanical instrument makers, printers, engravers,

cabinet workmen, &c., have as good chance of employment, although difficulty to obtain it may be at first experienced. Carpenters, masons, bricklayers, plasterers, blacksmiths, &c., may often find employment, especially if superior mechanics; but in most instances they would do better by striking into the country and inland towns, especially if business in their line be dull in the large cities. Farmers and agricultural labourers should by all means leave those places, and need never fear want of labour, and wages in proportion to their capabilities of performing the tasks required from them, in the country. The farther they remove from the cities, the higher will be their wages, and their service more in demand.

A frequent complaint, and which there is unfortunately too much foundation, arises from the fact, that the Irish, above most other emigrants, have a propensity to remain about large cities, and especially those on the coast. Not to speak of the sickness and evil habits to which such a course of proceeding often leads, the impropriety of such a mode of living must be in other respects apparent. The over-social and easily impressible character of our people too often induces careless and improvident expenditure, engagements unsuited to their well-being, and habits foreign to the natural bent of their dispositions. The crowded rooms, the ill-ventilated cellar, the uncertain nature of employment, the possibility of protracted sickness, and consequent sojourn in the public Hospital and Alms House, should by all means warn our countrymen to the prosecution of a more advantageous course to

secure a future independence. If they do not take warning by many unfortunate examples, daily presented to their view, in vain have they abandoned their native country and early friends.

The first difficulties of the Emigrant are always the most trying, and when encountering them, courage and resolution are indispensably necessary. Strong hands and stout hearts will ultimately succeed. Privations may be at first expected, and all persons on emigrating must be prepared to turn them to their future advantage. By a judicious course of proceeding, the way to competence will be opened, and by frugality and industry independence must be secured. Untoward accidents may sometimes preclude the possibility of their attainment; but these, however, will be the exceptions to a general rule.

CHAPTER V.

Frauds practised on Emigrants—Boarding-house runners—Forwarding houses and their agents — Freightage— Securing reasonable and speedy travel by inland routes.

No sooner has the emigrant landed, than he finds himself exposed to a repitition of the frauds practised before his embarkation, with others of a more infamous nature, arising from the peculiar circumstances in which he shall have been placed. Although our own experience had in part made us acquainted with many impositions, yet we could have no possible idea of the extent and extravagant nature of these extortions, were we not made acquainted with them from the reports and ev-

idence given by the committee, appointed by the session of the New York Legislature of 1849, to investigate this subject.

Most of the taverns and lodging houses keep runners, whose business it is to board all emigrant vessels as soon as they arrive, in order to induce the passengers to patronize their respective establishment. Great opposition is manifested on these occasions by the runners of rival houses—sometimes fighting and bloodshed ensue—the most opposite statements are made by each party, so that the emigrant is completely bewildered on hearing these reports. The runners, besides being professed bullies, are generally accompanied by characters of the same class, whose services are generally rewarded on the successful result of a battle: the strongest party carries off the astonished emigrants to the boarding-house in whose interest it is engaged, and once there extortion can be easily practised. Before proceeding to the taverns, they are told that beds and meals will be furnished for 6d. British money, to each person, but when they are called upon to pay the tavern bills, they are charged fifty cents or 2s. 4d., per meal, and oftentimes $1, or 5s. The board-house keeper sometimes enforces this enormous charge by an unlawful lien on the emigrants baggage, which is detained until this iniquitous demand is complied with; ignorance of the relative value of sterling and Federal money on the part of the emigrant, is taken advantage of by his landlord.* Fre-

* The following instance is submitted from the testimony of H. Husted:—"I was in a boarding-house in Cherry street, a man came up to settle his bill, which the landlord made

quently these houses are infested by notoriously bad characters; and emigrants have been robbed of all their money, without a possibility of abtaining redress. It is true indeed that many respectable boarding houses and taverns are to be found, in which no frauds of this nature are practised; but in general, the owners are not so apt to employ extraordinary means to induce emigrants to take lodgings in them.

Sometimes the runners assure the emigrant, that receiving stated wages from their employers, they can have no possible wish to deceive; although they work on commission in a great measure, and receive a *bonus* for each person they may be enabled to entrap. In order the more effectually to engage the confidence of the emigrant, the runner employed is generally a countryman, and ready to profess a sympathy and desire for the well being of the unsuspecting passenger. Thus, in the words of the report, "we find the German preying upon the German—the Irish upon the Irish—the English upon the English, &c., but at the same time we cannot hold our own countrymen entirely guiltless, for many of them it is to be regretted, are engaged in this nefarious business."

Assurances are often given by these persons that they will take charge of the emigrant's luggage, and convey it for safe keeping to a

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cut at $18. 'Why,' says the man, 'did you not agree to board me for 6d. a meal and 3d. for a bed?' 'Yes,' says the landlord, 'and that makes just 75 cents per day. You have been here just eight days, and that makes just $18.'" Sometimes an agreement is made for bed and board at the rate of York shillings, or 12½ cents, and at the moment of payment equivocation is resorted to, and the person imposed upon assured that English shillings, or 22 cents were meant.

boarding house, charging nothing for drayage or storage, until time can be had to look out for a suitable lodging: such offers are seemingly made through the most charitable and disinterested motives. These representations are resorted to, however, to allure credulous persons giving ear to them. Once arrived at the boarding house where their effects are to be stored, the offer of cheap rates induces them to remain a few days, and when they leave, four or five times the amount first asked may be demanded. In case emigrants will not consent to remain, exorbitant prices are demanded for carriage hire and storage, and the luggage is detained until these demands are satisfied. The perpetrators of such frauds are well aware that in very few instances redress can be obtained on the part of the emigrants. He is for the most part desirous to travel on without delay, unacquainted with the proper mode of proceeding in preferring a complaint to the proper quarter, or unable to procure evidence in support of his allegations.

These frauds of boarding-house keepers, however, are cast in the shade by the impositions of forwarding houses and the persons in their employ. The nature of this business consists in a contract entered upon between the partners of these firms and the owners of steamboats, stage coaches, canal boats and railroad cars, in which the forwarding houses agree to receive the tickets of these agents at a stated price, and to transport the holders and their luggage to places along their route. It will be the object of the forwarding agents to make as much on the tickets as the purchasers will agree to pay. This, however, would be-

the least objectionable feature in the business, if in all cases other engagements were fulfilled. But such is seldom the case. Sometimes, tickets being furnished to passengers in New York, which profess to run them through to their destination without further charge; these tickets are protested at the first stage of their route, and various objections made, either as to the mode of conveyance or the distance agreed on. The head quarters of these swindling concerns are established at important cities in the interior; as, for instance, those in the State of New York are principally located at Albany. Before the Emigrant starts from New York for a Northern or Western destination, he receives a ticket neatly printed and headed by engravings of a steamboat, railroad cars, or canal boats, with three horses attached. He is given to understand, that on the payment of an exorbitant or a low price, as the case may be, at New York, this ticket will carry him through Albany, to a place mentioned; whereas, the ticket itself only procures a passage to this latter city, where it has to be presented to some agent or company, on which it is drawn. If the holder be supposed to possess plenty of money, he is obliged to pay his fare over again, which he will frequently do, rather than delay, or return to New York to prefer a useless complaint, no evidence being obtained to substantiate it.

So numerous are the cases of extortion practised in connection with this business, that the difficulty would be, not to discover numerous instances, but to present particular ones in illustration. The forwarding houses employ runners by the week, month or sea-

son: some work on commission.* The na-

* An idea of the enormous profits and salaries they receive may be entertained from the folllowing extracts, taken from the testimony given. One of those largely engaged in the business, speaking of the fare to Buffalo deposes:—"I pay the runners at the time the passenger pays his fare. The account stands thus:—

The passenger pays		$5 00
From this deduct river fare ..	$0 50	
Office in New York ..	50	
Canal fare ..	1 50	
		2 50

The balance of $2 50 goes to the runner. I usually manage thus: the person pays $5, for which I give him river fare $1. Office in New York, 50 cents. Canal fare $1 50, making $3. The balance to the runner, $2. From this amount my consignee receives the tickets, for which I pay him $1 50."

The following is the testimony of Henry D. Smethurst, before the Commission:—"I have runners employed in New York and Albany, and the following are their names and the wages I pay them:—

George Cornell ..	$30	per week.
Charles Gallagher ..	25	do
Richard Cornell ..	25	do
William F. Hart ..	25	do
Aaron Piersons ..	20	do
John O. Donnell ..	15	do
Brady ..	15	do
Jesse Olmstead ..	25	do
Hiram Ketchum ..	10	do
George Burns ..	18	do
Henry Shanfroid ..	20	do
Sullivan ..	12 50	do
George McDonald ..	600	for the season.
Hamilton ..	600	do
Hiram Heusted ..	20	per week.
John Leonard ..	18	do
Chris. Penny ..	10	do
William Ford ..	10	do
Charles Andrews ..	20	do

The following persons reside and transact business for me at Albany:—

James Roach ..	$2,000	for three months.
W. F. Sterling ..	750	do
George Daily ..	1,500	do
Adolphus Shoemaker ..	60	per month,
Felix McCann ..	100	do
Thomas Sayles ..	75	do
Charles Bartlett ..	50	do
Henry Snyder ..	50	do
Sidney Goodrich ..	50	do
Samuel Boyington ..	40	do
Peter Finnigan ..	30	do
Henry Nichols ..	45	do

ture of their employment stimulates to great exertions, and every deception, and falsehood is resorted to by them, in order to deceive and mislead the emigrant, as to the modes of conveyance and prices of fare. They sometimes separately, or in conjunction, take passengers to an office to be "*booked*," and assure them that the proprietors are the sole owners of all the steamboats, stages, railroad cars and canal boats on their entire route. Sometimes passengers are promised passage in packet-boats on the canal, and are sent by line boats instead, when they are crowded together in the hold without comfort or convenience. The following is the manner in which this deception is practised in Albany, from which canal, packet, and line boats proceed up the Hudson and Mohawk Rivers. The passenger with whom the false engagement was made, is transported from Albany to Shenectady by railroad, a distance of 17 miles, and at a cost of 50 cents. Once there, the passenger cannot

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William Kerney	..	40	do
Sylvester Trowbridge	..	600	for the season.
I. L. Weaver	..	75	per month.
William P. Paff	..	50	do
William Smith	..	50	do

James Roach adds in his testimony:—"I have looked over the list of persons mentioned by Mr. Smethurst as being employed by him, and it is correct as far as it goes; the following names should be added:—

O. B. Trall, N.Y	..	$300	for the season.
Samuel Bennet	..	75	per month.
Philip Caswell	..	600	per season.
Hiram Johnson	..	75	per month.
Robert Miller	..	600	per season.
Stephen Gordon	..	75	per month.
George Dunning	..	75	do
Charles Cook	..	300	do

And others to whom we paid small sums at various times during the season, among whom was Ralph Schoyer, at $37 50c per week, &c."

obtain redress, and is obliged to take up with any means of conveyance offered.

Besides the hired runners, it is a generally received opinion, that many agents of emigrant societies have underhand dealings with forwarding houses, and most of the latter endeavor to get their influence. According to the evidence given, some of the "night watch," in the employment of the custom-house, are engaged in like manner, and have an advantage over other men in booking passengers. They generally extol a particular transportation line, and when about to leave in the morning, manage to get the names of some one or more of the passengers, which they report to the forwarding house. This is technically termed "stooling." Another method is also resorted to. The runners go on board vessels, and ingle out a man of influence, who is taken apart from the rest, and promised a *bonus*, with perhaps a free passage, provided he will use his influence to engage a number of his fellow-passengers to go by a particular line. The richest part of the joke is, that instead of being rewarded for their exertions, which are only required in a particular instance, the "stools" are always charged more than their fellow passengers, and they submit to it rather than undergo the shame of being exposed as traitors to the interests of their companions. The *bonus* sometimes given in advance, is again extorted by the threat of exposure.

As soon as vessels arrive in New York, and passengers are "booked" there, advice is instantly forwarded by letter to partners on the route, giving necessary particulars for their direction. The names and sums obtained

from those "booked," and probability of farther extortion are specified; those who cannot be safely cheated are particularly noted; and other remarks are made suited to the system of procedure. The consequence will be, on the arrival of those persons at the first stopping place, extortion, intimidation and violence towards them will be resorted to, on the part of agents there located.

Another fraud is frequently practised with respect to the weight of luggage and storage. When the luggage has been deposited even for a short period, in one of those forwarding houses, an exorbitant demand is made for storage, and generally paid. The greatest extortion is however on the weighing. Two tallies are frequently kept, the one to settle with the passengers, and the other to make out a boat or rail-car bill by, with a per centage against them. The man that takes the tally, adds to the weight called out by the weigher, so as to put an addition of fifty pounds or upwards to the true weight, for each separate lot. Sometimes the full price of freight and passage is received, and a ticket given to a certain place, with an amount due on arrival there endorsed upon it, which has again to be paid. In some instances when objections are made to these extravagant demands, it is said that most of the proceeds are paid to the government. There are cases also, in which a lot of passengers will be furnished with tickets in New York, for towns bordering on the Northern Lakes, and when arrived in Albany, these tickets are exchanged for others,—one containing the full number of passengers to Buffalo, and another for the Lakes, containing a

less number of passengers than had paid, so that many amongst the number will have to pay over again.

These impositions are principally confined to the eastern cities, so far as the forwarding lines are concerned; for in the South the passage up the Mississippi at any moment, and without shifting from the steamboat on which passage is taken, prevents the successful practice of these deceptions. It is also worthy of remark, that at the present time, a cheaper passage can be obtained from New Orleans to the States, or cities west of the Mississippi, and on its eastern banks, or on the banks of the Ohio, as far as Cincinnatti, than from any of the Eastern cities. This consideration should influence the Emigrant in his choice of a point for debarkation. The Northern Lakes are more easily and cheaply attained from Quebec, or any of the Eastern cities.

A person accustomed to travel in the United States, which the emigrant is not, could easily avoid those impositions, and at the same time proceed without delay, and unnecessary expense. On this account particularly, we would wish all single emigrants to be as little encumbered with luggage as possible; and in all cases, to go direct to steamboat and canal packet-boat captains or clerks, and railroad and stage-coach offices, and make an agreement to go to the terminus of a particular line without interruption. Being there arrived, having selected a desirable stopping place, a delay of not more than a few hours will be experienced on all the great public thoroughfares, if application be instantly made, for a forwarding conveyance. Sometimes it

will be only necessary to step from one boat or car to another, and continue the journey. But to avoid trouble, it would be better to pay only to the several stations of the route; as by this means imposition will be in a great measure avoided. Recollect also, that many opposition lines run on all those great thoroughfares, so that there need be little fear of delay, and passages can be had at reasonable rates; each line being desirous to take as many persons as possible at a low remuneration.

CHAPTER VI.

Routes and distances through the United States—Fares in English and American currency—Rail-road cars, canal boats, river steamboats, stage coaches and other vehicles—Boarding houses and taverns—Rents and modes of living in town and country.

Having already spoken of the principal seaports to which travellers should direct their course in reference to a particular inland locality, we shall endeavor to make our advice approved, by giving a list of the principal routes, stages, distances, and times, in which made, modes of conveyance, and lowest prices of passage from seaboard cities, to any of the principal interior towns.* The prices of fare are given in English and American currency.

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*The rapid construction of railroads in the Western States, to all the principal cities, and the projects for their completion, will, within a few years, add much to the speed, comfort, convenience, and safety of travelling, besides diminishing its charges.

BUFFALO—BY RAILROAD AND STEAMBOAT.

New York to	Distance.	Time.	Fare. Am. Cur. $ cts.	Fare. Eng. Cur. s. d.
Utica	250		2 06	8 9
Syracuse	311	Thro'	2 92	12 6
Auburn	360	in 48	3 36	14 0
Rochester	411	hours.	4 61	19 4
Buffalo	508		5 50	22 11

By this route the emigrant saves 6 to 8 days. 100 pounds baggage free.

GALENA, ILLINOIS.

VIA BUFFALO AND BEAVER.

New York to	Distance.	Time.	Fare. Am. Cur. $ cts	Fare. Eng. Cur. s. d.
Erie	600	8¼ ds	4 50	18 7
Beaver	740	9	6 50	27
Pittsburgh	770	10	7	29 4
Portsmouth	1070	12	8	33 4
Cincinnati	1170	12½	8 50	35 2
Louisville	1310	13	9 50	39 4
St. Louis	1840	14½	11	45 6
Alton	1860	14¾	11 50	47 7
Illinois River	1875	14¾	11 75	48 10
Hannibal	1960	14¾	12	49 8
Quincy	1980	15	12 25	50 9
Warsaw	2000	15	12 50	51 10
Nauvoo	2020	15¼	12 50	51 10
Fort Madison	2030	15½	13 50	56 3
Burlington	2060	15¾	13 75	57 3
Peru	2080	16	14	58 4
Iowa River	2090	16	14 50	60 5
Galena	2220	17	15	62 6

The time by this route can be reduced to any point, about six days, for 12s. 6d. sterling extra, by taking the railroad from Albany to Buffalo.

PORTSMOUTH, OHIO—BY RAILROAD & STEAMBOAT.

New York to	Distance.	Time.	Fare Am. Cur. $ c.	Fare Eng. Cur. s. d.
Cleveland	700	3 dys	8	33 4
Akron	738	3½	8 38	35
Clinton	752	3¾	8 63	36
Bolivar	780	4	9	37 6
Lockport	797	4¼	9	37 6
Pt Washington	812	4¾	9 25	38 6
Roscoe	835	5	9 50	39 6
Webbsport	849	5¼	9 63	40
Zanesville	867	5¼	9 75	40 8
Newark	876	5½	9 88	41 2
Millersport	891	5¾	10	41 8
Carroll	904	5¾	10 12½	42 2
Columbus	932	6	10 38	43 2
Circleville	937	6	10 38	43 2
Chilicothe	958	6¼	38	41 3
Waverly	978	6½	11 3	45 10
Jasper	984	6¾	11 12½	46 4
Portsmouth	1010	7	11 50	47 11

By the railroad 100 lb. baggage is free, besides a saving of 6 or 8 days in time.

PORTSMOUTH, OHIO—BY STEAMBOAT & CANAL.

New York to	Distance.	Time.	Fare Am Cur. $ c.	Fare Eng. Cur. s. d.
Cleveland	700	9 dys	5 50	23
Akron	738	9 1-2	6	25
Clinton	752	9 3-4	6	25
Bolivar	780	10	6 75	28 2
Lockport	797	10¼	7	29 2
Pt Washington	812	10¾	7 25	30 3
Roscoe	835	11	7 50	31 3
Webbsport	849	11¼	7 56	31 6
Zanesville	867	11¼	7 62	31 9
Newark	876	11	7 70	32 1
Millersport	891	11	7 75	32 3
Carroll	904	11	7 87	32 10
Columbus	932	12	8	33 4
Circleville	936	12	8	33 4
Chilicothe	953	12¼	8 25	34 5
Waverly	978	12 1-2	8 50	35 5
Jasper	984	12¾	8 62	36
Portsmouth	1010	13	8 75	36 6

100 pounds baggage free to each full pas-

senger on the lake and river, and 40 lbs. on the Erie Canal. 50 pounds on the Ohio Canal to all passengers over eight years, which constitutes a full passenger. Infants free.

CHICAGO—BY RAILROAD & STEAMBOAT.

New York to	Distance.	Time.	Fare Am Cur. $ c.	Fare Eng. Cur. s. d.
Albany	145	12 h	50	2 1
Utica	255	18	2 06	8 6
Syracuse	316	1 day	2 92	12 6
Auburn	365	1 3	3 36	14 0
Rochester	415	1 6	4 61	19 4
Buffalo	508	1 8	5 50	22 11
Erie	600	2 12	7 50	31 3
Ashtabula	650	2 12	7 50	31 3
Cleveland	700	3	7 75	32 4
Black River	720	3	8 25	34 5
Huron	740	3 06	8 25	34 5
Sandusky	755	3 06	8 25	34 5
Maumee, Monro	780	3 12	8 25	34 5
Detroit	825	4	8 25	34 5
Sandwich, U.C	820	4	8 25	34 5
Mackinaw	1474	6	10	41 8
Milwaukee	1480	6	10	41 8
Chicago	1520	6 12	10	41 8

By this route at least seven days are saved, besides freight on baggage—100 lbs. baggage free to Albany, and the same on the lakes. Children under 12 years, half price. Infants free. The above time can generally be depended upon.

CHICAGO—BY STEAMBOAT & CANAL.

New York to	Distance.	Time.	Fare Am Cur. $ c.	Fare Eng. Cur. s. d.
Albany	145	½	50	2 1
Utica	255	2	1	4 2
Syracuse	316	3½	1 25	5 5
Rochester	415	5 1-2	1 50	6 3
Lockport	478	6 1-2	2	8 4
Buffalo	508	7¾	2	8 4
Erie, Pa	600	8 1-2	4	16 8
Ashtabula	660	8 1-2	4 50	18 9
Cleveland	700	9	4 75	19 9
Black River	720	9	5	20 10
Huron, Sandusky	740	9¼	5	20 10
Maumee, Monroe	780	9 1-2	5	20 10
Detroit	825	10	5	20 10
Mackinaw	1474	12	9	37 6
Green Bay	1474	11	9	37 6
Milwaukee	1480	14	9	37 6
Chicago	1520	days.	9	37 6

100 pounds baggage allowed free to each passenger, and 40 pounds on the canal. Children under 12 years, half price. Infants free. The time by this route will sometimes be two or three days more than the above table.

GALENA—*By Railroad, Steamboat and Canal, via Philadelphia.*

NEW YORK to	Distance.	Time.	FARE Am Cur. $ c.	FARE Eng. Cur. s. d.
Philadelphia	87	8 hrs	2 25	9
Pottsville	200	2 dys	6	25
Columbia	168	1¼	4	16 8
Harrisburg	194	2 1-2	4 25	17 9
Hollidaysburg	340	4 1-2	6	25
Johnstown	377	5	6	25
Pittsburg	480	6 1-2	7 50	31 3
Steubenville	550	7	9	37 6
Wheeling	573	7	9	37 6
Marietta	655	7¼	9 75	40 8
Parkersburg	666	7¼	9 75	40 8
Portsmouth	831	8 1-2	10 50	43 9
Cincinnati	937	8¾	10 75	44 9
Louisville	1068	9¼	11 75	49
Shawneetown	1330	10 1-2	12 75	53 2
St. Louis	1620	12 1-2	13	54 2
Alton	1643	12¾	14	58 4
Quincy	1794	13 1-2	14	58 4
Nauvoo	1800	13 1-2	15 50	64 7
Gelena	2025	14 1-2	16	66 8
Dubuque	2051	14¾	16	66 8

50 pounds baggage free on the railroad, and 100 pounds on the Ohio and Mississippi rivers to each full passenger. Children under 12 yrs, half price. Infants free. Passengers proceeding to Pittsburg or any places on the Ohio and Mississippi rivers, can also proceed by railroad and steamboat to Erie, thence by canal to Beaver.

CINCINNATI, OHIO—*by Railroad, Steamboat and Wabash and Miami Canal.*

NEW YORK to	Distance.	Time.	FARE Am Cur. $	c.	FARE Eng. Cur. s.	d.
Toledo	805	4 dys	7	75	32	4
Maumee	814	4	8		33	4
Waterville	821	4¼	8		33	4
Providence	831	4½	8	25	34	5
Napoleon	845	4¾	8	50	35	5
Independence	859	4¾	8	75	36	6
Junction	872	5	9		37	6
St. Mary's	920	5¾	9	75	40	8
Bremen	928	5¾	9	75	40	8
Berlin	934	6	9	75	40	8
Lockport	951	6¼	10		41	8
Lorimer's Feeder	954	6¼	10		41	8
Piqua	957	6 1-2	10		41	8
Troy	966	6 1-2	10	09	41	8
Tippecanoe	973	6 1-2	10		41	8
Dayton	987	6 1-2	10	25	42	9
Alexanderville	995	6¾	10	50	43	9
Franklin	1005	7	10	75	44	9
Hamilton	1027	7¼	11		45	10
Cincinnati	1052	7 1-2	11	50	48	

100 pounds baggage free on the river, and 50 pounds on the Wabash and Miami Canal to each passenger over eight years, which constitutes a full passenger on the Wabash Canal. The above rates are for cabin passage from Toledo to Cincinnati.

LAFAYETTE, INDIANA.

By Railroad, Steamboat and Wabash Canal.

NEW YORK to	Distance.	Time.	FARE Am Cur. $ c.	FARE Eng. Cur. s. d.
Toledo	805	4 dys	8 50	35 5
Maumee	814	4¼	8 75	36 6
Waterville	821	4¼	8 75	36 6
Otsego	826	4	9	37 6
Providence	831	4 1-2	9 12	38
Damascus	839	4 1-2	9 25	38 6
Napoleon	845	4 1-2	9 50	39 7
Florida	853	4¾	9 75	40 8
Independence	859	4¾	9 75	40 8
Defiance	863	5	9 87	41 2
Junction	872	5	10	41 8
Antwerp	883	5¼	10 25	42 9
State Line. O. Ia	888	5¼	10 25	42 9
Fort Wayne	909	5 1-2	10 50	43 9
Huntington	934	5¾	11	45 10
Lagro	946	6	11 25	46 10
Logansport	987	6 1-2	11 75	49
Lockport	1001	6¾	12	50
Delhi	1009	7	12	50
Lafayette	1025	7 1-2	12 50	52 1

100 pounds free on lake and river, and 50 pounds on the Wabash Canal to each passenger over eight years old, which constitutes a full passenger on the Wabash Canal. The above rates are for cabin passengers from Toledo to Lafayette, which is the only comfortable mode of travelling on the canal.

The foregoing travellers' directory, compiled by the Messrs. Tapscott, so far as it goes, is substantially correct; although there are some immaterial differences in the miles of distance between some of the places mentioned, and the miles as given in other travelling guides. We are quite sure also that much cheaper conveyance cannot be had by the most inferior modes of conveyance, and the above tables

have only reference to these. It might happen indeed that at particular stages of high-water on rivers, when many boats are ready to start at the same time, or in case of strong opposition between rival lines, a cheaper passage could be obtained; but in few instances can any reduction be expected in these rates. The fares already given by the Messrs. Tapscott are their engagements to the public; and the public must pronounce on their fulfilment.—However, in a general way, the advertising of reasonable rates, and the standing of a long established house, against which we are not aware of any well grounded complaint being preferred, give a sort of warranty of honest dealing. These rates, in all instances, suppose the starting point to be New York; and the distances, time,and fare to commence from that city to the place afterwards named.

Boston being another principal starting point for the interior, we can give from a like list of advertised distances and rates of fare, the relative amount of expense. In this list the time is not given, but on corresponding lines of route with the other there can be no great difference; the trip by railroad to Albany,and by rail-road and steamboat to New York, is made in a short time.

WEST. St. Louis, Cincinnati, via Albany, the Lakes.

	Distance	Fare. Am. Cur.	Fare. Eng. Cur.
Boston to		$ c.	s. d.
Albany,	190	2 75	11 6
Utica,	300	4 50	18 9
Syracuse,	361	4 75	19 9
Oswego,	399	5 50	12 11
Rochester,	460	5 75	24 00
Buffalo	553	6 00	25 00
Cleavel'nd	745	8 00	33 4
Sandusky,	800	8 50	35 5
Detroit,	870	8 75	36 6
Sheboygan	1540	9 00	37 6
Southport,	1565	9 00	37 6
Milwaukie	1525	9 25	38 6
Chicago,	1565	9 50	39 6
Cincinnati,	1097	11 00	45 10
St Louis,	1665	15 00	62 6

SOUTH. Pittsburg, Wheeling, Baltimore, via New York.

	Distance	Fare. Am. Cur.	Fare. Eng. Cur.
Bos ton to		$ c.	s. d.
New York,	250	2 50	10 5
Philadelp'a	337	4 75	19 9
Pottsville,	450	8 50	35 5
Baltimore,	429	8 00	33 4
Reading,	393	8 00	33 4
Harrisburg,	444	8 50	35 5
Columbia,	418	8 00	33 4
Hollidysb'g	590	9 25	38 6
Pittsburg,	730	11 00	45 10
Wheeling,	823	12 50	51 10

The next principal thoroughfare is from New Orleans, up the Mississippi river, to the head of navigation at St. Peter's, and up the Missouri, as far as Council Bluffs. It might be remarked that henceforth settlements will be extending farther up the Missouri, but for the present Council Bluffs is the usual stopping place, although the river is navigable for steamboats to the mouth of the Yellow Stone River. As the time by this route depends on depth of water, swiftness of boats, and avoidance of delay in starting, and taking on or putting off freight or passengers, it cannot be exactly specified. The passage upward to St. Louis has been made in five days, but most usually occupies eight or ten. The passage to St. Peter's or Council Bluffs from St. Louis is made in about the same or a longer time, according to depth or lowness of water. The mode of travel is by steamboat. The towns up Red, Arkansas, or Illinois Rivers, can be reached conveniently by this route. We give the usual fares charged for cabin and deck passage for the first named places from New Orleans, 150 pounds of luggage being taken free—indeed, in this latter particular, little attention is paid to the weight, unless it be far beyond the usual travelling equipage of most passengers. It will be unnecessary to reduce the dollars and cents into English currency after the tables already given. The differences stated accrue from outfit of boat, furnishing of table, swiftness, stage of water, competition, being the first boat starting to a point when it is doubtful if the ice be broken up above or already formed, &c. The distances and passage fare only approximate to correct-

mess, after a useful examinatoion and enquiry.

New Oleans to	Dist. *	Cabin.		Deck.	
Vicksburg	395	$5	7	50	75
Memphis	780	8	10	1 50	1 75
Mouth of Ohio	1026	9	14	1 50	2 00
Louisville	1515	11	16	2 00	3 00
Cincinnati	1548	11	17	2 50	3 50
St. Louis	1200	9	16	2 00	3 00
Hannibal	1350	11	18 50	3 00	4 00
Galena	1629	14	24	3 50	5 00
Dubuque	1650	14	24	3 50	5 00
St. Peter's	2000	18	30	4 50	6 50
Jefferson City	1355	13	22	4 00	5 00
Council Bluffs	1890	18	30	5 50	7 00

It is always necessary to get on another boat at St. Louis to make any point above. A passage can be taken from New Orleans to Pittsburg direct, without changing boats. Children on steamboats are generally charged half-price; and are only admitted to the second table, when a cabin passage is engaged.

Another point of disembarkation—Quebec—is selected by some persons on proceeding to the United States. The reasons for preferring this route may be usually traced to a supposed economy, as the passage to this port can be obtained at cheaper rates, the ships bound for Quebec, being allowed to carry a greater number of passengers in proportion to their tonnage than those proceeding to the United States. These vessels are mostly crowded

* *Vide* Appleton's Southern and Western Traveller's Guide. New York: 1840.

with the poorest classes of emigrants; and in consequence of insufficient accommodation and room, disease is more likely to be engendered. These dangers, however, escaped, passage can be as easily and cheaply obtained to the interior of the United States from Quebec, as from any of the Eastern cities.

We shall now proceed to state the differences in the inland modes of conveyance, and the accommodation afforded. *First—Railroad-Cars.* The passengers that travel by the first-class carriages, pay at least double or treble fares, and are, in consequence, provided with more elegantly fitted cars, lined and cushioned; the higher grades of society take passage by them. The second class carriages are farther removed from the engine, but in other respects their accommodations are not so good, being unprovided with cushioned seats, and exposed in summer to flying clouds of dust, driven behind in the progress of the trains.—The railroad is a safe, and most speedy mode of travel; station-houses, where passengers can be received and set down, and stopping places to procure meals, are found at convenient distances. Sometimes danger is to be apprehended from a running off the track, which may be out of repair in places, but an accident seldom occurs through explosion.

Secondly—Canal Boats. There are two classes of these, the packets and the line-boats.—The packets are elegantly furnished, and meals are served up on board by the owners but the line boat is only used for transportation of freight and passengers who find themselves. If the latter desire dressed meals they will have to take on board a cooking stove and

cooking utensils, as it will be found a matter of difficulty to procure the use of the apparatus belonging to the boat. Most passengers, however, prefer the use of cold victuals, and are satisfied to put up with inconveniences for a few days. There are no berths or beds on the line boat, as on the packet, so that these necessaries have to be taken on board. Passengers sleep in the hold of the boat. Travelling by canal is the safest but slowest mode of conveyance in the United States; the packet boats, however, have a great advantage over the line boat, in regard to speed. Necessaries can be taken on board at all the towns along the canal.

Thirdly—Steamboats. These have been termed "floating palaces," and many of them are fitted up in a style of great magnificence. But the comfort of travelling by them is confined to cabin passengers. State rooms, accommodating two persons each, in separate berths, are appropriated for retirement by day, and for rest at night; ladies and gentlemen have separate cabins, but dine at the same table, which is set out in the "social hall," and stored with a variety of luxuries. Sufficient room for promenading or sitting under shelter is afforded on the outside part of the boat—the hurricane deck, or upper part of the boat, where the pilot-house is placed, can be resorted to at pleasure. The deck passengers are immediately under the cabin, and in the hinder part of the boat. A few berths are fitted up for their reception without bedding. Provisions must be provided at their own expense, and a mode of preparing them. Sometimes numbers are huddled together on board without

having room to move, or stretch themselves out for rest; the inconveniences of this mode of travelling can hardly be appreciated without being experienced. It has been truly stated, that more accidents, by explosion, burning, or sinking of steamboats, occur annually in the United States, and more lives are lost, than in crossing the Atlantic. Travelling by steamboats is, therefore, not without its dangers.

Fourthly—Stage-coaches. These are generally more expensive and incommodious means of conveyance, in proportion to distance travelled, than any other. They must be resorted to, however, in many instances, in order to reach a certain destination. The roads over which they mostly run are so bad, that accidents often occur by upsetting, and the passengers are continually jolted against each other. On some of the remote western routes they are nothing more than covered cabs, and afford little protection against cold, in winter. They draw up occassionally for relays of horses, and to give the passengers an opportunity of taking meals at taverns on the route. Besides these public vehicles and conveyances, much of the travelling of the United States is performed in covered wagons, in which country produce is taken to market by the farmers, and household necessaries brought home from towns or cities. Omnibuses and cabs run for accommodation, and at small fare, through the principal cities; and carriages, curricles, and buggies, are kept there for hire. In all large towns and cities, cabmen and draymen are to be found to remove baggage at reasonable rates. The municipal regulations of those places appoint the payment to be received for

stated distances: a No. is affixed to each dray or cab, that complaint may be lodged if necessary against the driver.

When travellers are about to remain for a short time at a stage or station, until their journey can be prosecuted, and, if their means will allow, it would be always well to select a respectable house for lodging and entertainment. At the first hotels in large cities a dollar per day will be the least charge; but single meals of an excellent quality will be furnished at respectable houses for 25 cents, or 1s. English. By taking board and lodging for the week a proportionate reduction is made in the prices. In the very lowest class of houses in the Eastern cities meals can be had for 6d. English money. In all country towns 25 cents is the least sum charged. Travellers must not, however, expect single rooms or extra attention at the last named rates. Most of the working classes of people in the towns and cities are boarded at from two to three dollars per week; but washing forms an extra charge. Shop men and professional men, when boarding out, requiring better accommodation, are obliged to pay in proportion. In country places and villages, mechanics and labourers are boarded by their employers, and washing is also included. This is not always the case, however, with respect to the former classes. The coutry taverns generally board and lodge single men or married persons with small families; the peculiarity of living in the United States, most single persons being indebted to individual exertions, render this mode of life very common.

Rents and expenses of living in large cities

are rather nigh; but in remote country villages these expenditures are not so great. A family could live cheaper by renting houses in these latter places, and furnishing their own necessaries. Farmers, whether proprietors or renters of the land they live on, are subject to little expenditure, as they raise in abundance what is immediately necessary for family support.

CHAPTER VII.

Tracts and Works on the United States, the most reliable and easily obtained in this country and in Ireland—Continued changes going on in the Old and New States—Allowances to be made for accounts long published—Undeveloped resources.

It is not so much our intention to give of this work a full description of the different States of the Union, and their capabilities and products for the purposes of the emigrant, as to direct him to the sources whence such information may be easily procured. Notices of this kind, to be full and reliable, would swell a guide-book to one of travels and national statistics. Besides, many works are already before the public to satisfy curiosity, and supply information on these matters. We shall direct attention to such as are most trustworthy, and which can be easily and cheaply obtained from any extensive book-store in Ireland or the United States.

The books of travels best known to the British public, in connection with the United States, are in general the least worthy of notice for the emigrants' purpose. We allude to

the volumes of Charles Dickens, Captain Maryatt, Mrs. Trollope, and Miss Harriet Martineau. All of these works are deficient in sound information, and for the most part occupied with ludicrous anecdotes, and ridiculous exaggerations of the country and people—lively indeed, but conveying false and unfavorable impressions. These books have been written for the purpose of affording amusement rather than sound information.

A small tract entitled, "Emigration to the United States," and another, "Description of the United States," forming the 37th and 40th Nos. of the second volume of *Chamber's Information for the People*, will be found to contain much useful information for the time at which they were published, 1842. Each of these tracts can be had at three half-pence per copy, and the valuable work in which they are comprised has been re-published in the United States. We hardly know a greater amount of information contained within so small a compass, and so intelligibly given. The principal authorities consulted in the compilation of these numbers are, the Travels of Messrs. Shirreff, Flint, Ferguson, and Stuart. *Holmes' Four Years in America*, and *Buckinyham's Travels*, are excellent works, but out of date on this subject. The most modern work published in Ireland on the United States, by Mr. Glashan, of Dublin, is *Mooney's Nine Years in America*, and although we have not seen the work completed, we should suppose its author would have correct information on all matters of greatest import to the Irish emigrant.

With the exception of the public documents and reports published by order of Con-

gress, it is to be regretted that few works on the features, productions, and statistics of the country are published in the United States.—The want of these, however, is in some measure compensated for, by the many excellent articles that appear from time to time in the public journals and magazines, in the shape of scientific, economical, and statistical papers.—Many excellent agricultural periodicals appear, showing the results of practical experiments, and the culture of productions suitable to the soil and climate of the several States. Travelling, however, is so general throughout the United States that most persons living in the country can deliver their impressions of various localities from personal observations ; or, at least, it is always a matter of little difficulty to find those who have resided in several states, and especially in the larger towns and cities.

It will be a matter of importance for the Irish Catholic emigrant to learn those stations where he will be within reach of a church,and a resident clergyman of his religion. This information can be obtained partially from the *Dublin Catholic Directory* and fully from the *U.S. Catholic Almanac* for each year, published in Baltimore. In the latter he will find the names, churches, and stations of the Bishops and Priests of each diocese, together with a full list of educational and religious establishments.

It is worthy of remark, also, that the changes continually going on in the United States leave room for considerable improvements in long published statements. Society and habits, although more settled in the Eastern and old

States than in the Western and newly-settled ones, are, even in the former, subject to a variety of influences, tending to give a distinctive character to their changes and standing. It might be supposed by those witnessing the gradual progress of building and improvements and the concentration of property and commerce in the hands of capitalists in older countries, that the like slow developments would in a great measure characterise the operations of the people of the well-inhabited Eastern States; this, however, would be an egregious mistake. An active race of competition in all kinds of trade and business contributes to the rearing up the different manufactories, villages and towns, in such extension and numbers, as to change in a few years the entire face of the country. What may be the ultimate result of this state of things, must be left to the speculations of the philosopher and statesman; one thing however is certain, that the difference between capital and labor has not yet been injuriously felt by the working classes to any considerable extent, and in many instances, employers find a difficulty in engaging hands. In many of the New England and middle States, co-operative workmen are their own employers; and in cases of reduction of tradesmen's wages, a turn out generally brings back the employers to their former terms in a few days, and frequently to an advance of wages. These latter incidents seldom occur in the less crowded towns and cities of the interior. The exertions of mind and body necessary to obtain a living and employment, is, however, more particularly required in the large cities, and more so in those on the Atlantic, than in the

Western States. Fluctuations of trade, commerce and currency abroad, have an important bearing on the business transactions of the whole country.

The particulars given of Western States are hardly published before these accounts, true at the time of writing, stand in need of considerable emendation. In the course of a few years, what was at first forest or prairie may be converted into an enclosed farm, with its rough log cabin perched thereon; land that was lately occupied by the wigwam of the Indian, may be the site of a rising village; and an untenanted declivity on the side of a navigable river may become in a very short time the seat of a busy city. These buildings and their appurtenances, however humble at first, are destined to give place to better; unless, as frequently happens, these towns and villages decline under the competition of more successful rivals in their vicinity. It takes, however, generally some ten or twenty years before the newly-settled countries put on the garb of sightly improvement. After this length of time, frame and brick dwellings become more numerous; the log houses more pretending in structure and commodious; fields better cleared and cultivated; and stock more numerous, better wintered and fattened for the market. Homespun garbs are exchanged for imported clothes and dresses; and the rude furniture of the log cabin, gives place to articles of convenience and even luxury. In new settlements great privations have to be encountered at first, in order to obtain a livelihood; but that once secured, and health and industry possessed by

the actual settler, his prospects brighten in course of time, and difficulties vanish.

Besides the agricultural advantages of the newly-settled countries, many others are worthy of notice. Water power for the erection of mills and manufactories, and vast beds of different kinds of mineral, either wholly unwrought or partially worked, have been discovered in various places. With such industrial stores in reserve, and the certainty of their being subjected one day or other, to a process of operations, we can as yet only imperfectly calculate the future progress of the great West and particularly that portion of it imcluded in the Valley of the Mississippi. As we believe the Western States better calculated for the exertions of those possessing little or no capital, and as the resources of the Irish Emigrant for the most part consists in a capability and a willingness to wield his physical energies in the achievement of a future independence, our object in succeeding chapters will be to direct his efforts in the manner we believe most capable of effecting such a desirable attainment.

CHAPTER VIII.

Different kinds of labor—Public works and their abuses—City works and manufactories — Mining — Steamboats —Mechanical employment and wages—Agricultural labor and wages by the day, month and year—Differences of agricultural labor in free and slave States.

As we have already alluded to the different

classes of emigrants, and the places in which they are most likely to obtain situations and employments, we shall next consider the different kinds of labor, the advantages and disadvantages in the way of remuneration, and the usual rates of wages.

Amongst the many employments in which the Irish have been engaged on this continent, we turn with less satisfaction and national pride to the consideration of public works.—Unfortunately for the credit of Ireland, the worst and most objectionable characteristic failings of her sons, are found displayed on these public stages, and in no enviable light. The disorderly conduct, absurd prejudices, half-civilized and intemperate mode of life of too many of our countrymen in times past—(happily a visible improvement has taken place within late years), has been the occasion of fomenting a dislike towards our country and her people, amongst many Americans. But alas! that it must be said—the intelligent, patriotic and respectable Irishmen of the United States have often blushed deeply, whilst reprobating the conduct of their degenerate brothers; and almost hopelessly sighed for the regeneration of their native land, in witnessing the demon of discord continue to rage amongst those misguided persons in the land of their adoption.

The mode of carrying on public works in the United States is attended with many grievous injustices to the laborer. When an estimate for the construction of a canal or railroad has been received, sections of the work are let out to different contractors under a superintendent —the lowest proposal with security for its ful-

filment is usually taken by the company. No sooner have the contractors (many of whom are Irishmen) obtained the section proposed for, than a number of laborers and mechanics necessary to carry out the work must be engaged. The object will be to procure them at the lowest wages possible, and for this purpose emissaries will be despatched to the places most likely to furnish workmen, and representations of a higher rate of wages than can be obtained are given. Sometimes an advertisement appears in the public papers of the large cities, where numbers of Irish are known to congregate, requiring two or three thousand hands, and promising the highest rates for labor, at a particular point. The consequences are, numbers leave remunerative employments behind them, and after incurring expense in travelling, find when they arrive, that but few hands are wanted, whilst numbers are on the spot to supply the demand, and the rates of wages are thus reduced to a very low standard. These must be accepted or no employment can be obtained. Those disappointed in obtaining work, or unwilling to work for the remuneration given, form themselves into factions, driving off, and using violence towards such as are willing to take the wages offered. In many instances, the public authorities are called in to restore peace, and this is not always effected without bloodshed. Payment in many cases, has to be taken in part from a public store belonging to the contractor, and furnished by him with such necessaries as are required for the board and maintenance of his workmen. This store is nothing better than a temporary shed. Like the miserable wooden

shanties in which the laborers lodge, it is movable at pleasure, along the work. One of these shanties will perhaps lodge some four or six men, who mess together; the wife of one of these, or some female relative perhaps, attends to the cookery and washing. A more demoralizing kind of life, in every sense of the word, can scarcely be imagined.

The public works of the country, in a great majority of instances, have been constructed by Irishmen. In general, American laborers and mechanics are not accustomed to the hard mode of living they necessarily require, and German laborers mostly prefer the lower, but more profitable wages of agricultural employment; so that, unfortunately for their own well-being, in many instances, the Irish are allowed the exclusive monopoly of such works. As many of these engaged are addicted to the use of spirituous liquors, those are furnished according to previous agreement by the contractor, or at least, a groggery is always close at hand. By an indulgence in the use of liquor, the worst passions are fomented, and the most pernicious habits formed. Casual disputes arise, and from individual quarrels faction fights ensue. The shibboleths of "Far-Down," and "Corkonian," "East" and "West," "North" and "South," arise from the private bickerings of some of the most worthless and ignorant wretches; numbers are summoned to the conflict on either side, who if asked to assign a reason for their partisanship could give none, these differences arising rather from miserable provincial and local prejudices, than from personal insults or injuries. Many who would willingly decline participation in those dis-

graceful affrays if left to their own good sense, are forced, by threat and compulsion, to join one party or the other. A want of moral courage — the courage often most wanting, and most necessary for many Irishmen—leaves no other choice, but compliance or expulsion from amongst their companions.

Although there is generally an advance of wages on public works, over the ordinary rates of the country, yet the amount saved by the great majority of the laborers is far from being considerable. So many temptations open in the way of expenditure, and the short and uncertain terms of employment, leave few gains to the workmen, especially by the time they have succeeded in procuring other work after their dismissal. It often happens that the contractors (called also "bosses") take French leave, without fulfilling their engagements to the laborers; frequently without payment of the wages of weeks and months. As their whereabouts cannot be discovered afterwards, redress is seldom or never obtained. The rates of wages on public works were formerly much higher than at present, and vary according to circumstances, from $1 to $1.50 for laborers, and from $2 to $3 for mechanics.

In the construction of railways and canals, besides the obvious inconveniences in the mode of living, many others are encountered. Exposure to bad weather, unwholesome air, &c., often occasions agues and other sickness: sometimes men are obliged to work with mud or water up to the knees, and frequently in wet clothes; without a possibility of shifting themselves. These inconveniences are not so often experienced on macademised or turn-pike

roads. It must be remarked, however, that these works are mostly carried on, from the opening of spring to the commencement of winter; persons engaged on them must be careful as to how they indulge in draughts of cold water, when heated with violent exercise. A neglect of proper precautions has often led to fatal results; in some cases the sunstroke or overpowering heat of the sun, especially in warm latitudes, has produced instantaneous death. Before drinking, the wrist or face should be cooled with water, and a little taken to gurgle the mouth; afterwards, a moderate draught, with occasional interruptions, will not be attended with danger. Much care must also be taken with respect to food: it should also be of a wholesome quality, and such as may be most accommodated to the constitution and climate.

The kind of work carried on in cities differs not materially from those already mentioned. It consists in a great part, so far as laborers are concerned, in the making and opening of sewers and trenches for water and gas-pipes, in grading, levelling, and paving streets or levees, in digging cellars and foundations for houses—all of which works are mostly carried on by the use of the spade or mattock, at which the Irish excel. To these might be added the carrying of hods, the loading and unloading coals and railroad cars. With respect to the regular habits of living, when steady employment can be had—these works are not so objectionable as the others, and workmen, in general, receive more punctual payment. The wages in both cases being about the same, ready money and prompt payment is always demanded

in cities, and paid weekly. In, and adjoining large cities, the large manufactories are for the most part situated, and the nature of their operations and the kind of work carried on there depends on the products of the adjoining country and its demands. Thus, the principal seat of the cotton and woollen manufactories is in the New England and Middle States; the iron works at Pittsburg, and other Western cities; miscellaneous manufactories on a smaller scale are found throughout the country. In the former kinds of manufactories the demand for operatives is unsteady and variable, with a consequent rise and depression of wages; in the latter the fluctuations are not so observable and employment is more steady. Flour and grist mills, fulling mills, and wool-carding machines, are numerous throughout the country; although their operations are conducted for the most part on a small scale. We profess ourselves unable, however, to give anything like an accurate standard of wages for the labour performed in these several establishments;—whatever is offered is generally well paid.—Mining (we speak not now of that in California, to which we intend to devote a separate notice) is mostly carried on in the Middle and Western States, in many of which coal, lead, copper and iron are to be found in abundance. The first is extracted at 3 to 6 cents per bushel, according to the opportunities afforded for excavation and its abundance. The lead and copper mines are conducted for the most part by adventurers, and sometimes turn out very profitable, but in most instances they barely pay the expenses and trouble to the "prospectors," so called, from the circumstance of their dig-

ging on chance, for a prospect of success. The owner of the land either rents it for the purpose, or is satisfied to receive a proportion of the profits. Sometimes the most persevering efforts are unsuccessful; and it rarely happens, that a good and very profitable "lead" or vein may be opened. Smelting affords good wages to those understanding the business. Iron is generally the most abundant of the hard metals, and most certainly procured where it abounds; it furnishes a means of employment to many pesons at reasonable wages.

The numerous steamboats, particularly on the Western rivers, employ a number of hands at high wages—from $20 to $30 per month and found. Those employed for the purpose of taking freight on board, and putting it off, at the ultimate points of destination, and intermediate landings—are named deck hands. Another class attending the fires, and hence called firemen, receive when paid a higher rate of wages. Most of those employed in the latter capacity in the West are negro slaves, belonging to the owners of the boat, or hired by them from their masters. A number of waiters are employed in the cabin, at good rates of wages, and the salaries of the higher officers, engineers, pilots, clerks, &c, range from $60 to $120 per month. These latter, if we except the incident dangers to which steam navigation is exposed, have desirable situations and comfort; the same cannot be said of the working hands, who are obliged to work hard and take meals and beds irregularly, without a decent conveniency in either respect. They are often subjected to harsh and violent treatment by mates or captains, being set on shore

at pleasure, and frequently in a place where it may be difficult to procure employment, or sometimes for an undeserved cause, being assailed by a volley of abuse and blasphemies. By this course of proceeding, the dignity of labor is reduced below the standard at which it should be found in any civilized country, and loudly demands in vindication the infliction of legal penalties against the authors of those injuries, who have been too often suffered to escape with impunity.

In mechanical employments, tradesmen generally make an estimate of the job to be executed, or work at stated prices, according to the nature of their contract. These works are carried on either by individual or combined exertion; in the latter case, assistants have to be procured, to work by the day or job, as agreed on, either with or without board. The following table might approximate pretty closely to the day wages of mechanics, with or without board:—

Carpenters, from	$1 50	to 2 00	per day,	and found.
Bricklayers,	1 50	2 25	do	not found.
Masons	1 25	2 00	do	and found.
Painters,	1 50	3 00	do	not found.
Tailors,	1 00	1 50	do	not found.
Boot and Shoe Makers,	1 25	1 50	do	do
Plasterers,	1 50	2 00	do	and found.
Bakers,	10 00	30 00	per month,	do
Weavers,	14 00	30 00	do	not found.
Blacksmiths,	12 00	26 00	do	and found.
Coopers,	1 00	1 50	per day	do
Tinners,	1 00	1 50	do	do

Wages in California, Oregon and the Territories, are not included in this table.

It will be unnecessary to add to the list, as an accurate estimate of the proportionate rate of wages in this and other countries, compared with the remuneration given to the profession

of the above handicrafts, can be easily ascertained. In this list, also, we are supposed to refer to finished journeymen in the larger towns and cities. Apprentices are sometimes allowed a small rate of remuneration for their services, especially when nearly perfect in the trade; this, however, usually depends on the agreement made in signing their indentures. On public works, or in the country villages, men that have not been regularly brought up to a trade, such as those capable of working at masonry or carpentry, receive lower wages.

Agricultural labor, although it affords the lowest remuneration, is nevertheless to be preferred by the man accustomed to this sort of employment, in his native country. It is always more steady and less variable than other kinds of labor; payment can be obtained more readily on the demand of the laborer; board and washing are always furnished; and laborers are not required as in most other works, to task themselves beyond reasonable exertions. Temptations for spending money are seldom presented in the country; and, consequently, in most cases, the Irish emigrant will find the amount saved at the end of each year greater than it would have been with higher wages, but without the opportunity of practising equal economy. Above all things, should he feel inclined to locate on land, after earning some money, it should be his endeavor to adopt this employment, as his best preparatory mode of disposing of his time and exertions. Much useful information will be obtained of the mode of farming and the kind of labor and management necessary; and hardly more than a year or two need elapse, with

strict economy, until he be furnished with the means of entering a tract of land on his own account.

Farm hands are hired for the month, three or six months, and by the year; generally at their own option.* The rates of wages per month range from $10 to $16, in different States, and rarely as high as $18. The rates by the year vary from $120 to $180. In free States, the highest rate of wages is usually obtained on farms; but in slave States, containing a small proportion of colored persons to the white population, as in Western Virginia, Kentucky and Missouri, agricultural employment is easily procured and well remunerated. In the Southern States, where the negro slaves are numerous, whites cannot obtain—neither should they seek employment, on plantations, unless in some other capacity than as mere laborers. The climate and peculiarities of culture there, will always, we believe, exclude the white man from employments that seem better suited to the constitutions of the negro race. It should also be remarked, that money more abounds in the old States than in the newly settled districts; in the former, better chances of farm hire are usually presented, and cash payments made with greater punctuality and less delay. Indiana, Illinois, Missouri and Iowa, in the lower parts, will afford the best openings for laborers in the West.

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* The rate of wages per day during harvest in most of the Western States varies from $1 to $2. The former is the usual figure; but on account of the numbers of young men left for California within the previous two years, the latter was the prevailing rate for the harvest of 1850. We have reason to suppose that wages in the older States do not take such a proportionate rise during harvest; as the number of laborers to supply agricultural wants must be greater.

A difference also exists, on the score of farming employments, between the free and slave States. In the former, labor seems to be more respected, and laborers are treated with greater consideration by their employers; the consequence is, all classes feel themselves more equalized in condition. In those States having a scattered slave population, the masters and their children are not above working with their negro servants in the fields. In case of white men being hired for agricultural work, they always sit down with the family to meals, as in the free States; the negroes partake of their meals in a separate apartment, or after the family rises from table. So far as kindness and good treatment of farm hands are concerned, the differences are not noticeable between the free and slave States; if the absence of equality be at all observable, it is in the exclusiveness of social and convivial gatherings. But we have known instances in the Eastern States, where a greater distance intervened between wealthy farmers and their assistants than in the slave States; and where, in some cases, the latter persons were not admitted to the tables of the former. This degree of exclusiveness is as yet unknown throughout the West; and would, if manifested, be taken in the light of an insult by the humblest agricultural laborer.

CHAPTER IX.

Previous knowledge of local resources and impediments in application for employment—Accountants and educated persons—Currency, exchanges, banks, &c.—Store payments—Promissory notes.

In seeking employment, as before remarked, those persons accustomed to the mechanical or agricultural labor of the country have an evident advantage over the emigrant newly arrived in the United States. It very frequently happens, also, that advantage will be taken of the necessities of the latter, who will be desirous of obtaining employment, however low may be the wages offered him. But in many instances, the most competent workman and the best known, may find it a difficult matter to procure a job of work.

A knowledge of local opportunities for the exercise of a particular business or trade, is of much importance to the emigrant; this is often wanting to him, particularly after his immediate arrival. For want of such knowledge, he may pass without the least suspicion the very workshop, in which his services might be required. He may at first find himself awkward and inexpert in the process of the trade or occupation at which he may be engaged, and which may differ in a material degree from that to which he had been accustomed. To instance cases of agricultural labor: the felling of trees, chopping, splitting rails, building fences, ploughing in half-cleared land, &c, will be totally different from any country work at which he might be heretofore engaged. These difficulties may prove a serious obstacle at

first; but a smart, industrious man, and one desirous of profiting by instruction, will, after a few weeks' experience, learn to overcome these impediments. He should also have a previous knowledge of these difficulties, honestly state his deficiencies, when requisite, and he will always find persons sufficiently obliging to give him necessary directions. His inexperience may prevent him for a month or two, or perhaps longer, from receiving the rates of wages to which competent workmen in the same employment are entitled; but should not, unless through his own fault, keep him after this length of time from acquiring the highest compensation.

There is a class of adventurers who seek the United States, in hopes of falling into situations as shopmen or clerks, and who have not been brought up to any kind of manual labor. These persons, of all others, are, in a general way, most likely to fail in accomplishing the object of their wishes. The situations for which they apply always require trustworthy persons, who can come well recommended. No matter how honest or competent the stranger may be, or no matter what quantity of respectable recommendations he may bring from home,—unless the parties recommending, and those to whom the letters of recommendation are addressed be acquainted, his chances for employment in large cities are small. Merchants always have a sufficiency of applications from respectable and competent young men, well acquainted with the business habits and characters of their own country and its people; and the numbers seeking to engage in mercantile business, renders the walks of the profession

overcrowded. Hence, we have known numbers of a class, whose talents and accomplishments deserved better advancement, obliged to take up with engagements far below their expectations when leaving home, and entering into service as tapsters, waiters or house servants. Sometimes, persons of superior education, for want of better success, have been obliged to resort to the most laborious and menial occupations, at least in the commencement of their career; and especially when they have no influential friends capable of preferring their claims for higher situations. It must be remarked, also, that the influence and exertions of friends are in general of less avail than might be supposed, in the United States; here, each man must be the architect of his fortunes, and depend solely on his own exertions.

We are of the opinion that persons of the class just now alluded to, and who are supposed to have an accurate knowledge of the grammatical rules and pronunciation* of the English language, who write a good hand, and have a thorough acquaintance with arithmetic, book keeping and geography, can have no difficulty in getting employed by the school directors of some of the country districts, to teach in some one or other of the common schools. For this service, the salaries in different States vary from $16 to $25 per month. The better chances for engagement would be out of the New England States, and in the in-

* The authorities for English pronunciation in the United States, are, Walker's and Webster's Pronouncing Dictionaries. The latter is the work of the National Orthoepist; but the former is also admired and followed.

terior of others; particularly in the Western and Southern States. In the latter States, however, schools are not always continued for the year round. In most cases, they last for six and nine months in the year. The highest salaries are given in the Southern States. Board is sometimes, but not often, allowed in addition; and at the expiration of each term, it is easy to make out another school in some neighboring district. The persons employed in many of those schools, for want of others more competent, possess very often inferior qualifications.

If, in addition to the requisites of a common education, a good knowledge of mathematics and the ancient and modern languages be possessed, it will be no difficult matter to obtain a situation as teacher in some college or academy, at a salary proportioned to the qualifications possessed. In some of the Southern States, particularly, a situation as family tutor in some of the houses of the wealthy planters, could be easily procured. But we would suppose, in most of the rising Western and Southern towns, excellent opportunities for the opening of male and female high schools could be found; and we would strongly urge upon well educated and practical teachers the advice of opening academies or superior schools on their own account, or in partnership with others of like qualifications. Moreover, this employment, as it ought to be, is looked upon as combining respectability of vocation with the deserving of an extended and pecuniary patronage.

Having thus treated on the different employments to which Irish Emigrants might be

likely to resort, in their efforts to procure a livelihood, it will be necessary, perhaps, to offer a few observations on the monetary transactions of the country, for those who have but an imperfect knowledge of them. The currency, as at home, consists of bank bills and specie—gold and silver coins, and copper cents—the latter are not in circulation in most of the Western and Southern States. The United States gold coin is found in the dollar, quarter eagle ($2\frac{1}{2}$ dollars), half eagle, or 5 dollars, and eagle, or 10 dollars, and 20 dollar pieces. The silver coin is found in the 5, 10, 25, 50 cent, and dollar pieces. A new coin, in proportions of silver and copper, and of the value of 3 cents, has been lately issued. The copper coin is found in cents alone, 100 of which are equal to the dollar;—as nominal coin, the mill (ten of which make a cent), and which is not in circulation, need scarcely be named. But besides these, the gold and silver coins of other countries freely circulate according to the following standard, which is nevertheless fluctuating, but never to any considerable amount. In business sheets the following mark $ designates dollars, and c. cents, as £ stands for pounds sterling in Great Britain. Exchange is low or high, as the balance of trade stands for or against a particular country:—

Names of Coins.	Standard Weight.		Gt. Britain ster. money			Federal Value.		
GOLD.	dwt.	gr.	£	s.	d.	$	c.	m.
A Johannes	18	0	3	12	0	16	00	0
A Doubloon	16	21	3	6	0	15	60	0
A Moidore	6	18	1	7	0	6	00	0
An English Guinea	5	6	1	1	0	5	00	0
A French Guinea	5	5	1	1	0	4	60	0
An English Sovereign	4	80	1	0	0	4	84	5
A Spanish Pistole	4	6		16	6	3	77	3
A French Pistole	4	4		16	0	3	66	7
SILVER.								
Crown, Eng. & French	18	0		5	0	1	10	0
Spanish, Swedish or Danish Dollars	17	6		4	6	1	00	0
An English Shilling	3	18		1	0		22	2
A Pistareen	3	11			10¾		20	0

All the gold coins of equal fineness, at 89 cents per dwt. and silver at 111 cents per oz.

The Banking institutions of the United States are perhaps more numerous, and more subject to contractions and expansions, than those of any other country. Counterfeit bills are often in circulation, and sometimes so well executed that even the officers of the Banks on which they are forged, are deceived on their presentation. For the discovery of forgeries and to direct business persons in the rates of discount on each Bank, monthly publications are issued in the different cities, called "Bank Bill" or "Counterfeit Detectors." These are mostly issued from the offices of Exchange Brokers; and many of the city papers give the rates of discount with daily corrections. When, for example, 65 or 5 discount be found affixed to each Bank, it means, that so much must be deducted per cent from the value of the Bill for the Exchange Brokers; but if a slight discount, which does not descend below 5 to 10,

be marked, and the bank be supposed good for the redemption of these bills, hardly any objection is made to receiving them in the usual business transactions. The word "par" means, that no discount is to be deducted from the bill. Negociable bank bills vary in denomination from one to one hundred dollars, and are always engraved with devices peculiar to each bank, and sometimes each bank has a different device for bills of different denominations or branches. Besides the dollar bank bills, in some States there are issues of bank tokens of a smaller denomination, which are usually nicknamed "shinplasters;" these notes will not be received, perhaps, within a circuit of more than ten or fifteen miles from the place in which they are issued, and should, therefore, be always refused by persons about to travel to a farther distance. These few hints may afford some requisite information to the early emigrant, and put him on his guard in the reception of paper money.

A mode of payment for labor, often resorted to, is that of giving an order on a store to a certain amount; it is usually adopted in consequence of a previous understanding between the employer and the storekeeper, or, as is often the case, when the employer is owner of, or partner in, the concern. This mode of liquidating a just debt is liable to many objections; and should not, if possible, be accepted by the laborer. In addition to this, in remote districts or newly settled countries, payment is often made in trade or kind, so that the product given has to be converted into cash by the receiver, in the most available manner. In many instances, notes or promises of payment made

to the employer are transferred to the employed for collection, much, perhaps, to his annoyance and dislike. It is true, that in all cases, except where a regular and specified contract be entered upon for the purpose, the employed can, by law, demand payment in specie; but in certain circumstances, he would find it disagreeable to make such demand, especially where a contrary established custom regulates the exchange business of a certain locality.

CHAPTER X.

Farming—Its recommendation as a pursuit, to the Irish agricultural emigrant—Public land and its mode of entry—Partial improvements and opened farms—Opportunities for purchase—Renting and farming on shares—General condition of the Irish agricultural settler.

Although many opportunities for the profitable investment of labor and capital are open to the Irish emigrant throughout the United States, there is one of all others, to which we would direct his attention, especially if accustomed to agricultural pursuits. We speak now of Land, whether in its wild or cultivated condition. It cannot be for a moment doubted, but this source of future wealth, will amply repay the toil and expense of reclaiming and cultivation. Other pursuits may possibly lead to the accumulation of large fortunes, in a shorter space of time than would be necessary to render land productive; but in all instances the value of land, whether wild or under cultivation, steadily advances in price, and will

always command in market a fair rise on the original cost of purchase. Instances to the contrary are found, no doubt, as in cases of the entry of broken, wet, unprofitable soil; sometimes, also, speculative estimates run a little in advance of actual worth to the persons entering, who do not intend to become settlers themselves. Oftentimes, when the parties are removed some distance from their entered tracts, there is no opportunity of selling to their advantage, whilst, perhaps, unpaid taxes are accumulating. Our remarks, then, must be understood to apply solely to the case of persons becoming actual settlers, or who judiciously enter tracts of land adjoining the place of their intended residence.

A previous knowledge of agricultural pursuits although of advantage, is by no means absolutely necessary for a settler, who designs addicting himself to such a mode of life. The most experienced Irish farmer has much to learn in America, before he will be enabled rightly to execute the kind of work he has to encounter.

An idea of the manner in which a first settlement is usually made on public land, may be of advantage to the intended settler. As soon as a certain district is laid off for survey, the surveyors commence operation by running lines north and south, in parallel directions; these are transected again, from east to west. These squares, six miles in length on each side, are named townships. Each township is divided into 36 sections, of a square mile each, and containing 640 acres. These sections are subdivided into quarter sections or 160 acres, half, quarters of 80 acres, and six-

teenths or 40 acres. In the Western States generally, the sixteenth section of 640 acres are set apart for school purposes in each township; this is reserved for disposal by the school trustees, for the benefit of common education. Maps of the survey for each district are deposited in a public land office, at which the entered and unentered tracts will be shown; copies of the maps, with the numbers of the forties or the sections marked for direction, with the names of purchasers, if entered, can be there obtained for a small sum. The government price of land is $1.25 per acre, if unsold at public auction; but it will be first sold at public auction if a higher bid can be obtained, in any quantity, from 40 acres upwards.* The title to land is simple and furnished to the purchaser by the land agent for a small fee.†

No sooner are the districts thus laid off than a general rush is made to secure the sections or tracts considered most valuable. A knowledge of soil, location, conveniences, &c., is required in order to procure a good entry. For this purpose personal inspection or reliable information from an intelligent friend who has examined the various tracts, will be necessary. A copy of the map is usually taken to the district it includes, the lines and numbers will be shown by a person residing near, or they can be otherwise obtained on enquiry; the land is examined with its appurtenances, and provided there be no other claimant, it can be

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* It is now in agitation, to donate the public domain in small tracts to actual settlers, and recommendations to this effect have been proposed to Congress by some of the most influential members.

† Vide, Act of Congress, approved 20th May, 1785, and subsequent Acts.

paid for and entered at the land office. It is not, however, necessary to pay for the land immediately, which is indeed seldom done;—most of those who go in quest of land, as soon as they have made a choice, proceed to the erection of a small log cabin, and thus establish a pre-emption claim to the land on which it is built. It will be theirs at least until the land comes into the market, and then they have a right to prior entry. Land is not subject to taxation, for some years after the first purchase. In case some unforeseen accident should prevent the pre-emptionist or "squatter" from being able to enter his land, at the time another might be enabled to do so, it would not be safe for a purchaser to take the land over his head, without his buying his good will; for although the law of the land might assign possession, public opinion could not be braved with impunity. In nearly all such cases, however, a compromise is easily effected with the possessor; and at all times, numbers of squatters will be found, ready to part with their claims, when due compensation is allowed for improvements, which are hardly undertaken on an extensive scale. This would be often the easiest and most advantageous mode of getting land, for persons possessing a small capital; it would save previous trouble, hardships and loss of time in riding over a large extent of country, and in being obliged to put up with many privations. Persons possessing a sum varying from $150 to $200 could find small tracts to suit them in such a condition, in all the newly settled States. Some public land, which owing to various circumstances would not be

worth entering at first, might remain neglected for a considerable time; and, indeed, in certain cases, many desirable tracts are looked over for years, without being entered. The person about to locate on public land will have need to be on his guard in seeking information from interested persons; he may be told of claims set up, which really have no foundation,—the object will mostly be to gain time for a particular purpose. Resolution and personal courage in defence of a claim are necessary, and often called into requisition, against some unprincipled adventurer.

As soon as the land has been entered in this manner, the first object of consideration will be the erection of a log hut or cabin. This is effected by felling some trees and dressing them, usually in a rude manner, calling together a few hands to assist in elevating them to their required position, and covering the whole with shingles. The seams are chinked with pieces of wood or stone, and the whole plastered with sands or mortar. Land has to be cleared and fenced afterwards, broken up, and sowed down under grain or corn. For two or three years little can be made, beyond the mere necessaries of food and clothing; the first year requires an outlay for family support. In some instances, cottages ready made in parted sections, are sold in the Western cities, and carried by the intended settler to his location:—they are there jointed together in a few hours, and are then ready for the comfortable reception of the inmates. These framed houses sell at from $80 to $300, and are well adapted for economical purposes, where entrances have been made on open prairie land with little

wood attached. The cost of transportation on boats or wagons may be worth consideration. Once fairly settled down, and health being uninterrupted for the first years of his location, the squatter, especially if aided by a numerous and industrious family of grown boys, will soon be enabled to look around him with assurances of comfort, plenty and independence. These desirable acquisitions are not procured for the first few years after settlement, unless attained by the expenditure of a considerable amount of capital. It should be remarked, that the Irish emigrant unacquainted with the mode of clearing land, labors under a peculiar disadvantage, when entering upon this kind of life and must be at considerable expense if he hires hands to clear land for him.

Farming land can be always purchased in all parts of the States, at various prices, according to location, quality and improvement.—These prices vary from $2 to $30 per acre; but in the vicinity of large cities they may rate higher. Although the soil of the Eastern and Middle, is on the whole inferior to that of the Western States, the density of population in the former causes land to sell at higher rates. We would therefore advise the Irish emigrant possessing a small capital, and desirous of investing it to the greatest advantage, in the purchase of land, to direct his course to the West. In all parts of the country, however, by watching proper opportunities of purchasing, land can be had for ready money at accommodating prices. Sometimes farms are sold to close mortgages, or under execution; but in most instances, the voluntary desire of the owner to engage in some other pursuit, or

seek another location induces him to sell.—Sometimes the terms of sale will admit the purchase of land, by paying instalments, and reasonable time may be allowed the purchaser for the final payment. This mode of buying however, mostly requires the addition of legal rates of interest, unless a special proviso to the contrary be entered in the contract.

In order to carry on farming in a profitable manner, the purchaser of a farm should have some capital wherewith to commence operations. In proportion to its size also, he will require additional assistance; but a farmer with a family containing some two or three stout, industrious sons, will be enabled to attend to the cultivation of 30 or 80 cleared acres, by following the usual mode of tillage practised in most parts of the country. Farming implements are necessary for his purpose; and hogs, horned cattle and horses in proportion to the wants of his family and the capabilities of his farm.

Most of the farming operations of the United States are carried on by the owners of the land; but in many instances farms are rented and the rents paid in a specified sum of money —or as mostly happens, in a stated proportion of the crops cultivated. In the first case, money rents vary from 50 cents to $8 and $10 per acre. These latter rents are only paid in the vicinity of large cities or old states, and for small tracts under improved tillage. In other instances, the proportion of the crop paid to the owner is usually one half in the Eastern or Middle States, and one-third in the Western. Sometimes the rent is paid in improvements, and leases of land, from five to

ten years are taken, generally on the condition of the renter effecting a clearing, and the erection of fences and houses. With a good family to assist, the renter can raise sufficient for their subsistence, and may be able in the course of a few years to lay up sufficient to purchase a farm of his own. The latter is an event of no easy accomplishment in the older States; but in the partially settled States or the West, this object can be effected with little difficulty. A small capital to start with is necessary; and whatever implements or stock may be procured will be of use afterwards, when about to commence farming on his own account. No person should undertake farming without being resolved on following it as a profession, and it should be the object of the farmer to escape as soon as possible from the condition of renter to that of occupier. Many having this object in view, are, nevertheless, kept from the accomplishment of their designs for years, owing to ill-directed exertions and bad management.

Farming is often undertaken on "shares," and particularly in the Western States. By this is meant, that the owner furnish seed corn, implements of agriculture, horses, &c, to the cultivator, on condition of receiving one half of the crop. In the Western States, board and washing is allowed in addition. In some cases, higher or lower proportions are given, according to the quality of the soil; but in most cases, the allowance to the cultivator is under this rate. For a single man, this is usually the most profitable mode of farming, especially when he has no capital to expend in furnishing himself. If he takes rented land, he will

be put to the inconvenience of boarding at some neighboring farm house, or of keeping what is called "bachelor's hall;" by-the-bye, one of the most untidy and comfortless establishments that can well be imagined. He is obliged to do his own cooking and housekeeping; and this interferes in a great measure with his time and out-door operations.

From all that has been now said on the subject of farming, the emigrant will be enabled to see its characteristics partially revealed. We think that in a very great number of instances, the toil and energy of many of our countrymen are absolutely thrown away in the pursuit of other vocations. The improvident mode of living from day to day, without making provision for the future, and which has been adopted by so many Irishmen, leaves them unprovided for the rainy season, and worse off at the close than at the commencement of their career. On the contrary, whenever an Irishman becomes the owner and cultivator of the soil, no man seems to know better how to make it produce with advantage, and no man advances to an independent standing with more rapid strides. We think, indeed, that if any of our city laborers would have the opportunity of making a visit to some of the Irish agriculturalists of the West, a contrast might be instituted between two separate conditions of life, that could not fail in exciting salutary reflections in the minds of the former, and in favor of the latter classes.

CHAPTER XI.

House-raising — Fencing — Farm-stocking — Agricultural implements.

It will be necessary to touch lightly on the measures to be adopted by the agriculturist, under the various circumstances in which he finds himself placed. If his capital enables him to enter upon a farm already cleared and improved, and to stock it in a proper manner, there can hardly be a question but it would be to his advantage to make such a purchase; for in most instances, farms of this kind can be obtained at such rates as only fairly cover (including Congress price) the mere cost of additional outlay. Thus hard personal labor will be saved, and the farmer, from the commencement of his career, will enjoy the domestic comforts of life; whereas, if he undertook improvement on his own account, he might find himself at a much greater loss to bring the farm offered for sale to its present advanced condition. Besides, the work of house-raising, chopping, splitting rails, and clearing, is out of the line of the Irish agricultural emigrant; all that follows, bear a greater resemblance to the usual farming operations of his own country, with some slight differences as to the mode of tilling.

But we will now suppose the emigrant to be unprovided with capital, and to have entered land by pre-emption, or by purchase from the government. He must then commence improvements upon a small scale. If he designs erecting a house, and would prefer the exchange of labor to which he is accustomed, for that which would come rather awkward to

him; in most cases, he will have an opportunity of making such arrangements with other persons, as may better advance his objects. Thus, whilst a dexterous axeman is engaged in the felling of his timber, in clearing land and rail-splitting, he may be able to requite these services by ploughing, harvesting or other labor to which he is accustomed. But, as the former kinds of work are usually performed in the winter season, it may not always be convenient to exchange labor, unless the backwoodsman be satisfied to forego his claims until the season arrives for the latter employment. However, the payment of ready money will always command the services of clearers, choppers and rail makers. A good set of house logs, according to dimensions, numbers, &c, will be hewed by those accustomed to the work at from $10 to $16. If prepared on the ground from which they were cut, a good yoke of oxen, with a drag chain, will haul them to the spot designed for building in a few hours. Some dressed poles or sawed joists for rafters can be easily obtained; the latter are preferable, if saw-mills abound in the neighborhood. Shingles are often out of the question in remote settlements, but their place is supplied by clap-boards, varying from two and a half to three feet in length. These are easily riveted, and a few hundreds will cover a pretty large house, but in a very rude manner. It mostly happens, that new settlers only design the first log house of their erection for a temporary dwelling; when they are enabled to recover themselves somewhat, this is converted into a kitchen, a meat house, or some such out office, and a better house or set of houses is erected

on the adjoining ground. As these are the usual modes of proceeding, in the commencement of a settler's life, we confine ourselves altogether to a description of them.

The materials for building being prepared and drawn to the ground, it will be the object of the owner to pitch upon a certain day for the house raising, and to prepare a dinner and supper at a convenient place, for the number of hands he expects to assist him. If the house to be erected is of more than ordinary cabin height, or if it consist of an upper and lower apartment, the number of men required to raise it will be greater. In order to get through in a day, due measures must be previously taken, that when the hands arrive on the ground there may be no unnecessary delay. Peizing poles and skids, to place against the sides of the building, and of different lengths, to suit the sliding of the logs to their places, should be procured. An experienced house-builder, and one whose words and example will be capable of stimulating his fellows to exertion, should be selected as "boss," or director of the work. Corner men, active and expert with the axe, to give the due notches in the logs, should be stationed on the several angles of the building. Sometimes two or more setts will be requisite, as in the case of the erection of a double pen, or out buildings. When measures are well taken, the day favorable, and a sufficient number of working men, and no talkers on the ground, the house will run up before the close of the day, or perhaps in a few hours. A convivial evening usually succeeds. We would wish, however, that in all cases the use of spirituous liquors

would be dispensed with on these occasions, as the work would always proceed with greater rapidity, nor would enjoyment and hilarity be in any degree lessened.

Sometimes, as in the case of rudely constructed log huts, the felling of trees, cutting to requisite lengths, hewing, and raising of logs, may be undertaken and finished on the same day. An invitation must be given to the neighbors the day before, as in the former case; few will fail to attend, if not prevented by some pressing engagement. The work that remains unfinished after the log raising, is easily accomplished by an ingenious man, who has a tolerable experience of the mode of proceeding in these cases. Spalls of rock, large and small chips, and dressings of timber, serve for the chinking between the logs; mud, or lime, which is easily burned on the spot, if limestone abounds, stops the crevices; the saw opens the logs for the insertion of doors, windows, stone or wood-built chimneys, with interior coating of stone; sawed or dressed plank forms the floor; and a few poles placed over the clapboards, and confined by wooden pins to the sheeting underneath, give a tolerable idea of the work required on a log cabin, in its rudest state. Weather-boarding, plastering, shingling, and the erection of a porch, are the requisites of a comfortable log house; but require a considerable additional expense. A good frame or brick house containing several apartments, can be erected in any portion of the settled districts of the West, at an expense varying from three to eight hundred dollars; the structure, however, must be plain.

The usual rates for splitting fence-rails in

the West is 50 cents per hundred; the hauling, if at no great distance, and the erection, will cost 50 cents in addition. The number of rails to surround forty acres of a square, with stake and rider fence, and ten rails in height, will be according to the angle of the pannels, from 11,000 to 12,000. A man will put up 1,000 fence-rails in a day. White oak, walnut or black locust, will make the most durable fence; but fences will have to be removed or reconstructed, with fresh rails inserted, every ten or twelve years. Cotton wood rails, if they can be procured, will answer well on open prairie. The planting of hedges on the latter, has been found to succeed as an experiment; however, it cannot be immediately advantageous to the settler, especially if rail timber can be conveniently procured.

The stocking of a farm has next to be considered, and this must be undertaken with a due reference to its capabilities and products. A span of horses or a yoke of oxen will be required; the former would be most desirable for general purposes, in the way of ploughing and drawing. Farms adjoining an extensive range of prairie are favorable to stock raising, and this is often the most profitable undertaking; especially when remote from market, to which other kinds of produce must be hauled. Quantities of corn, oats, hay, &c, must be raised for the purpose of wintering, and in proportion to the number of stock and the length and severity of winter. At certain seasons beef raising, and at others, hog raising will turn out most profitable; but the adoption of his mode of management to the expectations

of a favorable result characterizes the intelligent farmer. Provided he be out of debt, it will be a mere matter of money making with him; his mind is always at rest, as to his future independence. It sometimes happens, also, that his means may not allow him to purchase stock for ready money; but in the Western States he can mostly procure them on a credit, he will be allowed reasonable time for liquidation, and his increase of means, with good success in his mode of management, will soon enable him to meet all demands.

No difficulty whatever is experienced in breaking up prairie soil, to fit it for purposes of cultivation. A good yoke or two of oxen, with a strong plough (the roller plough being preferred) will suffice for a first ploughing. In the timber land, the stumps and roots of trees and bushes not yet removed, will occasion more trouble and require an additional yoke of oxen, according to the nature of the opposition to be encountered. These impediments to agriculture will be removed in a great measure after the first crop has been produced; but it may take some time before the roots and stumps decay and become entirely eradicated. In most instances, the land is only partially cleared at first; many trees are left standing for future removal, and the bark chopped round to deaden them. The ploughing and sowing are carried on underneath, and sometimes accidents are known to occur both to men and horses by the falling of these trees, in the case of storms or high winds.

An orchard is one of the first plantations of the settler; the earlier it be set out the sooner it arrives at maturity, and the first fruits pro-

duced in a new settlement are generally very profitable to the grower. The kind of trees must be suited to the soil and climate; but in a general way, fruit trees thrive better on a cleared timber than on a prairie soil.

The routine of agricultural labor, as it is negligently carried on in the Western States, comprises the early spring ploughing for oats and corn; continued ploughing between the rows of the latter when beginning to make its appearance over ground until the commencement of the rye or wheat harvest, and sometimes later; mowing, harvesting, mostly performed by cradling, and the use of a newly invented machine for this purpose; treading out the smaller grains by means of horses; gathering corn, and putting up feed for winter. The ploughing and sowing of wheat takes place in the fall; and the winter is occupied for the most part in feeding stock, hauling firewood, and making rails. As the country becomes more settled and better opened, improved methods of farming will be introduced; but for the present, the low prices for most kinds of produce, and the high rates of wages in proportion, prevent the undertaking of scientific agricultural operations, as in the older settled States, where these matters are reversed. However, we believe that a more skilful mode of culture, adapted to a smaller extent of surface, would in most instances prove advantageous to the farmer.

In almost every case, in the newly settled districts, the barn is an appendage unknown to the farm house; the only houses erected near, are the meat house, stables, and corncrib. Thus, there is no shelter provided for hogs,

sheep or horned cattle; these animals are obliged to endure the severity of the winter, and frequently on insufficient feed. A system of greater attention in providing for the shelter and warmth of these animals would doubtless more than repay the farmer for his additional outlay; and would save the lives of many useful animals that for want of corn are suffered to perish during the rigors of the winter season.

CHAPTER XII.

Healthiness of climate—Situation and location—Nearness to church, schools, mills, markets, &c—Speculations arising from the probability of future public improvements—Nature of soil—Woods and prairie lands—Trees, an indication of the quality of soil—Water—Remarks on the prevalence of fever and ague—Prevention and Remedies.

As health is the greatest of all temporal blessings, and, as without it little comfort can be enjoyed, even with the possession of all other requisites, the emigrant in making a selection of the place of his future residence, ought to consider attentively the characteristics of the climate, and their influences on his health and constitution. Persons in a delicate state of health sometimes derive much benefit from a Southern residence, especially during the winter season; and are, in a general way, not so liable to the diseases there prevailing as those possessing a more vigorous constitution. But the situation of the place in which they reside has a considerable influence on the health of Southern residents, and par-

ticularly on that of occasional sojourners. The low, swampy lands are considered most fatal to the life of the white man in summer; but the elevated, and interior high lands furnish agreeable and healthy retreat. On the whole, however, a Southern climate has a debilitating influence over the constitutions of the people of Northern Europe; and in a general way, so far as they are concerned, it seems unsuitable for a constant residence. The short term of life attained here by most European emigrants compared with that of the acclimated, will present the truth of this fact with startling force. Those, however, who are necessitated to live in the lower Southern States ought of all things avoid exposure to the unwholesome *miasmas* of the bottoms and marshy grounds at early morning, at the close of day, and during the night. Cleanliness and temperance in the mode of living will do much to counteract the baneful effects of the climate. Most danger is incurred here by the emigrant during the first two years of his residence: at the end of this time, his constitution becomes in a great measure attempered to the atmospheric influences that surround him. Many proceed to the South in the expectation of receiving higher rates of wages than they could obtain in the Northern States, and several persons go down in the commencement of winter and return before the outbreak of the prevailing epidemic, in July or August. The latter class of persons ought to bear in mind that, considering the expenses of going and returning, higher rates of living and unsettling themselves, little in a general way can be made, and much may be lost.

It is a remarkable fact in medical statistics, that consumption prevails more in the Eastern and Middle, than in the Southern and Western States. We are unable to assign the cause of this difference; but the presumption might be that variableness of climate in the former has no inconsiderable share in creating the malady. Such an exemption is, however, counterbalanced by the fevers and agues which prevail to a greater extent in the latter States. For our own experience of the atmospheric changes in different States, we would be inclined to think that the West presents more ra id transitions from heat to cold than the East; and the mercurial rise and fall of the barometer and thermometer in the course of a day, or even of a few hours, will be a matter of surprise to those engaged in observation. The relative changes of climate in the different parts of the United States can be best determined by an extended and continued series of meterological experiments; and they would furnish satisfactory inferences in a sanatory and scientific point of view.

The inhabitants of the British Islands would on their first arrival in this country, find the climate of Michigan, Wisconsin, Iowa and the northern parts of the Eastern and Middle States, well suited to their constitutional habits. After residing a while in the country, the Eastern and Middle States, Virginia, Kentucky, Tennessee, Missouri and the Western States will be found in a general way as healthy locations as any in the United States. Partacular tracts of land, distinguished by certain conformations of soil and surface should be avoided, in all the States of the Union. These

general observations being premised, it will be the concern of the emigrant to consider the peculiar advantages of each spot for his business prospects and general convenience. This leads to an enquiry regarding the circumstances and conditions that give an especial value and importance to the location selected.

With most Catholic settlers it will be a matter of much regard to discover the proximity of a Catholic church and resident priest to the site of their intended homes. A Catholic school or institution will inhance the value of their location. It should be always considered that, how firm soever in the faith, and however exemplary in the practice of religious duties Catholic parents may be, it will be no easy matter to instil the same principles into the minds, or procure the same observances in the conduct of their children, should they be removed from a church of their persuasion, or placed without the circle of religious influences. As, however, a near location to church cannot always be procured on reasonable or available terms, and as from the general extension of religious appliances and the yearly increase of the ministers of religion in the U. States, Catholic emigrants need not be under serious apprehensons of the above-mentioned evils, if they take care to discharge their duties towards their children, by applying themselves to their religious instruction. An occasional visit from a Priest can be generally procured, especially if a few Catholic families reside together in the same neighborhood.—Knowing, however, from experience the evils incident to a distant residence of Catholics from priest and church, we would advise all

our people to endeavor to get as near as possible within reach of both. If that be not practicable, let Catholics endeavor to settle together in the same neighborhood, and when their numbers will justify the concession, they can procure the occasional visit or residence of a priest from the Bishop of the diocese.

Schools are all important in the neighborhood of those raising a growing family, standing in need of elementary or advanced education. The proximity of a town or village, where the ordinary demands and wants of an agricultural population can be easily and cheaply supplied, will be of essential importance.—Under certain circumstances, it may be of advantage to procure necessaries from country stores by exchanging agricultural produce; as moreover, in newly-settled countries cash cannot be had for what is raised, unless at the sacrifice of much time and convenience. The settlement of artificers most required, as carpenters and blacksmiths, furnish the means of supplying the ordinary wants of agriculturists. Flour, grist, and saw mills are also of great advantage to the immediate neighbourhood. Good roads or the probability of their being made so at a future day, should not be overlooked. These observations have more immediate reference to the newly settled States; as in the older ones these requisites are abundantly provided.

The want of markets for produce, or their distance, sometimes renders land of good quality of little value to the possessor, at least until a future day. The distance to the principal market, however, is not of such great consequence provided an outlet or easy mode of

conveyance thither be furnished. Good turnpike or rail roads afford the best opportunities for transporting the products of countries, far removed from the great navigable streams.—Various advantages are also conferred by the latter, and in this respect, the Eastern, Middle and Western portions of the United States are highly favored. In fact, it may be safely assumed, in consideration of the commercial facilities hitherto furnished, that before the close of the present century, all parts of the Union shall have abundant means of communication with distant points; those links of intercourse must procure convenience, wealth and happiness to the people at large, and mutual advantages and consolidation to the several States of the Union.

There are certain speculations entered upon, which are productive of great wealth to those who can have the foresight or the fortune to make a good move in the purchase of land or lots, in or near a place destined at some future day to become the site of a large city. The probability of the future construction of a canal or railroad, and the accomplishment of the work afterwards, afford good opportunities for the investment of capital, on certain portions of the contemplated line. But to render these speculations safe, a previous knowledge of the country and its capabilities is generally requisite. Strangers are apt to magnify things at a distance, particularly when puffing reports are circulated in the public prints through interested motives, and by designing persons; and they find too often that when credit is given to these representations, their credulity has been

taken advantage of and abused.* Due consi-

*Some of our readers will no doubt be enabled to call to mind the projected city of Eden, as given in Dickens' Martin Chuzzlewit. This imaginary sketch could be drawn from real prototypes. We recollect on our first arrival in this country, taking notice of a map conspicuously posted up in the various hotels and public places of the Eastern cities, and purporting to give the various squares, wharves, and public buildings of Marion City, on the western bank of the Mississippi River, twelve miles above the present city of Hannibal. This chart was elegantly lithogra hed, the names of the streets were given, and the description of the site such as could not fail to captivate the imagination of the mercantile or professional man—the artisan or the romancist. The consequence was that numbers, without further enquiry, bought lots; houses ready framed were procured for transportation, and every distant indication gave promise of a future large city. But these hopes were dissipated on a nearer approach. It was our fortune to have afterwards witnessed the site of Marion City and its local advantages. These consist of a low and level prairie, intersected by bottom sloughs, and barely elevated above the river at high water mark, and on the frequent occurrence of high water totally submerged. On riding over these bottoms at a comparatively dry period, the horse nearly sunk to his saddle girths in water and morass. The lots that were formerly sold at high prices, are of course suffered to remain at present unimproved and neglected; nor could their location be recognized by the owners. Shortly after the arrival of the Eastern people, who had made those purchases, an amusing caricature was etched and exhibited in some of the neighboring towns. The purchasers were represented in various groups, sailing over their lots in boats, each busied in examining the chart, and endeavoring to find therefrom by the aid of lead and line the probable location of his property. This drawing was said to be worthy of ranking with any of the productions of the comic and spirited pencil of Hogarth.

We have known instances, also, where land had been entered for others by proxy and commission, in various parts of the Western States, and which was of no value whatever to the owners. In a case of this kind, when the stranger had concluded on coming out to occupy his entered land, after taking with him a surveyor to determine the lines of boundary, and discovering the nature of the soil and surface, the whole tract was offered to the surveyor for his services, and refused by him. Another instance might be given regarding a person taking land under like circumstances. His entered tract consisted altogether of wet, swampy prairie, without a single bush thereon, and far removed from timber. When he had been shown the lines of his land, and cast a hasty glance over it, his disappointment found vent in a flood of tears, and unable to give expression to the poignancy of his feelings, he rode away in silence. These lands were abandoned to tax sales, but, we believe, found no purchasers.

deration should be given to the remarks of those living in the neighbourhood, from whom information can be best obtained on many points, and to whom enquiries might be preferred, after a previous examination of advantages and disadvantages, according to the unbiassed judgment of the person most interested. The possibility of future public improvements taking place, on or near the location selected, will often prove delusive; or, if these works be ever undertaken, it may be at a very remote period. Present advantages, therefore, should not be passed by, and great disadvantages encountered, unless assurances and indications well founded, induce a person to forego for a time the partial benefits of the present for the all but realised certainties of the future.

If the emigrant be resolved to devote himself altogether to aggricultural pursuits, after having obtained a knowledge of these tracts of land that offer the best scope for his enterprise, he must make himself well acquainted with the nature of the soil from which he expects to derive a subsistence. Unless he is resolved to adopt artificial methods for the renovation of worn out soils and lands naturally barren, although favorably located and circumstanced in other respects, it would be a waste of time and money to undertake their culture. Small tracts in the vicinity of the large cities might, however, well repay the trouble of reclaiming to a man of small means and moderate capital. But it so happens that the public land lately brought into market, or about to be brought, furnishes the greatest body of excellent soil, and at the most reasonable prices. Hence the newly settled Western States, will be found to

open the best chances to the emigrant. It would be out of our power to point out the choicest lands for his selection, as the object he has in view must be taken into consideration. Agricultural pursuits like all others admit of variety, and must be considered with reference to the particular management to be adopted, and the kind of products required.—We shall only present a few hints on the most general objects usually had in view, in the location of land, and in rendering it available for procuring those necessaries and luxuries of life, which come within the province of the skilful agriculturist.

The unrestrained land of the United States may be divided into wood and prairie tracts. The former,is either heavily timbered as in the rich river bottoms, more lightly timbered with a heavy and thick undergrowth, as on the lighter, but often rich soils,—scrubby or bearing dwarf timber; as on barren tracts or on the edges of prairies,—and what are called oak openings or glades,as may be found in portions of Iowa and Wisconsin. Sometimes it is said, that the quality of the soil may be determined from the different kinds of timber it produces. So far as the size of timber is concerned, it must be allowed that the largest trees indicate the richest land—but the thick hazel and other shrubs in certain locations, also furnish evidence of a good subsoil. In a general way, walnut, chesnut, sycamore, beech, maple, hickory, black and red oaks, grow on good soils; pine, spruce, white oak and brambles, are characteristic of indifferent lands. But no certain determination should be based on these indications; for we have the authority of ex-

perienced agriculturists, acquainted with the character of the soil in different States, to bear us out in the statement, that the kind of wood, supposed to grow only on rich soil in some of the States, East, West or South, will be found occupying the poorest lands under certain circumstances. Thus the sumach, which grows on the poorest soils in the East and South, will be found almost a sure mark of rich land in the West. Bushy and scrubby, scattered timbers is generally found on broken and rocky surfaces. The naturalist will find the analogy of similar plants growing on corresponding soils frequently reversed, in different portions of the United States; and on enquiry into the cause of those apparent violations of natural laws, must be referred to his investigations.

The prairie lands are loamy on the banks of rivers—wet and smampy on low or level surfaces—rolling or undulating, and these are generally dry, and suited for agricultural purposes. We believe it is a fact generally admissible, that all wet prairies can be drained at a trifling expense; sometimes the running of a few plough furrows will be capable of effecting this object. The prairies are unknown in the New England or Middle States; they are found in the Western States or the Southern, where they assume the name of savannas. The grass grows rankly upon them, and in a superabundant manner; they furnish almost a limitless range for any quantity of stock. The prairies are all known to be connected together without the intervention of timber, except on the rivers and small streams; so that by keeping round the sources of these, it is said that a man might travel almost from the first

Ohio prairie to the shores of the Pacific, without being obliged to pass a single sheltering tree. A remark is also made that the prairie land on the head waters of rivers and streams is usually of better quality than that found lower down;—this, like the timber indications, admits of exceptions. As the wild grass of the prairie is considered rather sour and distasteful for the use of stock where it grows luxriantly, it is burned off in certain proportions, at different seasons of the year, and the cattle are always found to graze on the tender and sweet blades that spring up on these burnings, leaving the more luxuriant grass untouched. The proportion of arable soil greatly preponderates on the prairies over that on the wooded land; the want of timber for fences and firewood leaves much of the former unentered, particularly where the expanse is very extensive, and where wood cannot be conveniently or cheaply procured. Sometimes a small tract of the latter contiguous to prairie, very much enhances its value; but where the proportions are reversed in extent, the smaller tract rises to a corresponding increase in estimation. The labor of clearing is saved in a great measure by getting part timber and part prairie on entering land. The due proportion of timber to serve the fencing and fire wood purposes of a farm of this kind, is considered to be about one part of timber to two of prairie. As it will be unnecessary for the emigrant's purpose to allude to the Southern savannas, our remarks must be understood to apply exclusively to the prairie soils of the Western States.

The soils of Michigan, Northern Illinois,

Indiana, Ohio, Western New York, Wisconsin and Iowa, seem best adapted to the production of wheat, oats, rye, barley and for potatoes. The Southern parts of Illinois and Indiana produce good corn; but this may be considered the staple crops of Missouri, Kentucky and the Southern states. The last named states produce fine crops of hemp on the rich lands, and tobacco is raised to some extent. It must be remarked, that the Northern States first named, are not stock raising countries, so to speak; and in this respect, can never enjoy the same advantages that the more Southern States possess. The prairie ranges for the most part extend between the 88th and 42nd degree of North Latitude in the Western States, and afford limitless pasturage for cattle; and towards the South, the prairies are more extensive and luxuriant. The long and cold winters of the north tell severely on the unhoused stock there raised; whilst at the same time, the scarcity of corn for food, and the deficiency of natural pasturage, renders it but barely possible to subsist the cattle required for domestic purposes. The more Southern latitudes grow corn in abundance, and have in general more open winters, with an earlier approach of Spring. It must hence appear evident, that whilst the staple for support in winter is produced in greater profusion the quantity of corn to winter stock will not be required in as great proportions. The more Southward the location may be, the more the winters diminish in cold and duration; and cattle can subsist themselves the year round in Louisiania, with hardly any care or attention. Feeding cattle and raising stock is us-

usally the most profitable business to which the farmer can apply himself; and it requires less heavy labours than the raising the grain and transporting it to market. It saves much time also, to raise a large drove of hogs or horned cattle, and drive them to market in the proper season, when the amount received for them, is always paid down in cash. The farmer is saved the trouble of taking his grain to market (especially if it be a distant one,) in successive wagon loads; his expenses on the road, if greater for the single trip taken with his drove, will be more than counterbalanced by the repeated outlays in the other case, and should he undertake to ship his cereal produce on his own account, he will discover the vast difference in respect to costs. Good water and an abundance of it will always be required for stock, but in most parts of the country this is easily attainable. The wooded country abounds with springs and streams; the water used on the prairies is for the most part contained in cisterns. Artesian wells have been bored through many of the dry Southern soils with success; we have no doubt but they will be commonly sunk on the Western prairies at no distant day.

It has been remarked that sickness to some extent is almost sure to follow the breaking up, clearing and settlement of virgin soils; but having prevailed to some extent, the country gradually assume a more healthful character and the more it is cultivated and drained of superfluous moisture, the more diseases are apt to diminish. Hence, it should not be assumed, that because partial interruptions of health take place under certain cir-

cumstances, the same causes will be likely afterwards to occur. In general, the appearance of the country and its situation should be taken into account, to judge properly of its healthfulness. Rolling land, high, dry, open and removed from water courses, may be considered safe for location in this respect. Swamps, bottoms of river banks, especially when narrow and secluded from a free current of air on either side of the bluffs, should be avoided, however greatly the temptation of richer soil may invite. An observation we have frequently made in many parts of the Western States is, that although bottom land usually yields a double crop to the cultivator, and although many persons make their selection keeping this in view, we have seldom seen a wealthy or prosperous family there located:—in too many instances, sickness and doctors' visits have pressed on the inhabitants, and the hand of death has laid low the wretched occupant, who perhaps in another location, would have enjoyed a long course of uninterrupted health and strength. These calamities are further increased, when the lands are liable to be submerged on the rise of floods, and under such circumstances improvement is about out of the question. Congestive and billious, with intermitting fevers, generally prevail in such situations; and we have known instances in which almost every member of a family at the same time had been prostrated under some one or other of these diseases.

Billious fever and ague are the diseases most likely to visit the Irish emigrant at first; these usually leave their impress on the sys-

tem, and often lead to other disorders. When taken in the fall seasons, it is not easy to break them—ague particularly—until after repeated attacks. The spring fever yields more easily to proper treatment. It will be always necessary to call in the services of a physician on the first stroke of sickness, which is usually most violent; this attack is most severe on persons who had hitherto enjoyed robust, to prevent disease than to cure it when caught, due precaution should be early taken and effective preventatives applied. The causes that contribute most to ague and fever are, exposure to pestilential exhalations, wet, cold and hardship, poor living, want of warm clothing and lodging,and the use of unsuitable food. Much sickness is induced by neglect of changing clothing when saturated by ruin or profuse perspiration; and relapses are easily brought on by want of care and by exposure. There are some situations—those we have already alluded to—in which it would be almost a matter of impossibility to preserve health, even with the utmost care and attention, for any great length of time. But in other respects, much will depend on a regular, cleanly and comfortable mode of living. We have often known the climate to be blamed for diseases, which are induced by the sufferers themselves. We would therefore advise all emigrants to beware of unnecessary exposure, to make their habitations as comfortable as possible, and to clothe themselves in a manner suited to the warmth and rigors of the season. We would caution them against the false arguments assigned for a neglect of health. But as it is generally an easier matter,

these precautions, one of which is by becoming inured to hardships, a person will be better fitted to endure the vicissitudes of the seasons, and be enabled to surmount the diseases incident to the country and climate. This, and such like arguments are false in fact, as they are in philosophy.

CHAPTER XIII.

California emigration—Gains and losses—Difficulties of routes—Hard mode of living—Time and place for outfit—Oregon and the Territories of the United States.

Within the last two years, the remote and newly acquired territory of California, has engaged public attention, and attracted a great number of emigrants. Without insisting much on the correctness of our opinions, we shall endeavour to present such considerations as may be of some importance to many of our countrymen, who contemplate a journey to the gold region.

The boundaries of California, will be found on the newest published maps of the United States; but the descriptions already of the country have been hitherto partial and unsatisfactory.* We do not mean to assert, that

*The descriptive works of greatest pretension hitherto published on California, are: Congressional Reports on New Mexico and California; Plates and Maps by Lieut. Emory, Albert, Cook and Johnson. Notes of Travel in California, by Colonel Fremont and Major Emory: California Guide Book, with Map: Life in California, by an American; A Tour of Duty in California, by Lieut. Revere; Sights in the Gold Regions, by Theodore T. Johnson; Los Gringos, or An Inside View of Mexico and California, by Lieut. Wise, U. S. N; The Gold Secker's Manual, by D. T. Armstead; Four Months among the Gold Finders in California, by T. Brooks, M.D.

these are unfavourable; on the contrary, if one half the glowing descriptions given in newspaper reports be correct, it would prove the richest mining and mineral country in the known world. But we are as yet in a great measure ignorant of this region and its resources. Information will, however, be shortly supplied; but to render this information authoritative, it should come in the shape of a report drawn up by a scientific exploring expedition, such as had been fitted out for Oregon, or at least, the authority of professed naturalists and mineralogists should be received in a published form, after a due examination by them of the different parts of the country. One thing is, however, certain, that the loose reports already published, and the exaggerations of most private letters received therefrom, should be received with a due degree of caution. We have the warrant of reliable and trustworthy persons to bear us out in the statement, that California shines with greater lustre at a distance than on the spot. These gentlemen to whom we allude, are sober, practical and intelligent persons, who have tried the experiment of an outfit, and who have travelled pretty generally through the most noted parts of El Dorado. We shall endeavor to balance the results of their experience with the public and private accounts already received, and leave the inferences to be drawn from these comparisons to the unbiassed judgment of our readers.

From the statements generally given, it would appear that the gold region principally extends in a North and South direction, through the mountain spurs and ravines from

the river Gila to Oregon, and between the Great Salt Lake and Sacramento City. It is believed, however, that mines of inferior richness are to be found in many other places here, and in New Mexico. New discoveries will, doubtless, be made as the country receives more adventurers and becomes more generally settled; although, we believe that the chances of fortune hunters in the mines must diminish through the same causes. It is strange, however, that in the quest of gold, the great natural advantages of the country should be overlooked. Of the vast number who have left for this region, from different parts of the United States, within the last two years, few have resolved before setting out on turning their attention to agricultural or commercial pursuits. And yet, by the accounts received from miners there, and those engaged in other pursuits, we might fairly state, that on an average number of reliable reports, the latter have been enabled to make and save more money. It is indeed true, that the mining country can never become an agricultural one, owing to the ruggedness of its surface and the general barrenness of the soil in all but the precious metals; however, there can be no doubt but large tracts of fine tillage and grazing land might be found along the water courses, and on the level country, extending back from the shores of the Pacific. The rising importance of San Francisco, Sacramento City, and other towns on the sea coast and in the interior—the efforts making to connect the country with the older States, by the splendid and national project of a great railroad—the increasing intercourse between the Pacific cities of South America, the Pacific

Islands, the Asiatic Continent, and our newly acquired possessions, render it a matter of certainty, that at no distant day, California will acquire importance in manufactures and commerce. The climate is considered one of the most healthful in the world, and favorable to the production of all the fruits and grains of the Northern and Southern States of the Union.

It would, perhaps, be considered superfluous to attempt a description of life in California, as it has been already pourtrayed in all shapes, from the newspaper and book accounts to the penny wood cut and oil painting panorama. In the cities, an approach to the older States in the comforts of living is becoming daily more apparent. In the mines, rude huts and tents form the only shelter against the elements. A great difficulty is always experienced in procuring the comforts and necessaries of life. Want and exposure soon bring on their natural concomitant—sickness; and the miseries and hardships then and there encountered may be better conceived than described. Death is often the result; and when recovery ensues, the toil of a season is expended in procuring the services of physicians or attendants, and the constitution is broken in such a manner as to leave the unfortunate convalescent in a bad state to prosecute his labors. Want of cleanliness, regular meals and suitable covering must be endured. In short, to compensate for the privations and hardships undergone, the wealth of California would hardly suffice in the opinion of those who have described to us their gold seeking adventures.

The gains of mining are always precarious

and uncertain. Some, indeed, have the good fortune to acquire a large amount of the precious metal in a short time, but they are always in the minority. For the one person that succeeds, hardly ten will acquire what they would consider a competency; and many, we are assured, hardly make their board and clear ordinary expenses. We are always apt to have the most favorable accounts duly reported, whilst the numbers that get disappointed in their efforts are overlooked. As most of those who have started out only propose to themselves a residence of a few years, when they intend to return to the bosoms of their families, they are content to put up with all privations rather than leave empty handed. For this purpose, they subject themselves to great hardships, toil unceasingly, and after all, bring home a very moderate show of gold. When the expenses of the outfit, and, perhaps, the support of a family to be provided for at home, are taken into consideration; when the lost time that could be profitably employed at other work, with the enjoyment of health and domestic comfort be added, it must be apparent, that a certain competence is preferable to the uncertainties of a California adventure. However, accounts as yet received, and the numbers already returned, in proportion to those that have set out, would hardly allow us to predict what may prove the general result of the present adventurous excitement. It should be remarked, that during the rainy and winter seasons operations must be generally suspended; and much of the previous gains will be required for necessary subsistence during this time. On the whole, the accounts al-

ready received from industrious, enterprising and active young men of our acquaintance, are at least as discouraging as they are in many respects favorable.

But the actual hardships of California are not to be taken solely into consideration; as the outward and return trip presents its difficulties, expenses and dangers. The eminently practical operations of the American people, and their experience in travelling, together with the advices of those who already proceeded on the route, have been the means of diminishing each year the labors and fatigues of travel. The usual mode of proceeding to California, and the quickest from New York and the Eastern States, is by sea; but oftentimes great delays are experienced at Panama and Chagres, either from the want or insufficiency of means for transportation. This is also the usual return route for the West. But the overland journey, as being less expensive than the voyage by sea, is generally preferred by the people of the Western States, on their outward trip. The mode of proceeding generally adopted is as follows:—A company is made up in a particular locality to rendezvous at the starting point, which may be Council Bluffs, St. Joseph or Independence, on the Missouri; or, if a full company cannot be procured on starting, it is afterwards made up at one or other of these points. Three or four persons are partners in a single outfit, which generally consists of a light covered wagon, drawn by mules, horses or young oxen. Horses or mules are required for riding, at least one or two, and these serve for relays or substitutes for other animals, in case of foundering or accident. Provisions, to

serve for four or five months, are taken from the starting point. The time for starting most approved is, when the grass begins to make its appearance on the plains, usually at the latter end of April or beginning of May. Sometimes feed is taken on to subsist the animals on the plains until this time, the object being to get out as early in the season as possible. It is often a mistaken notion of people coming from a distance, to bring on all the way a loaded wagon; as all necessaries can be cheaply procured in the vicinity of the starting point. We must, however, own, that owing to the peculiar circumstances under which emigration was commenced last year, the prices of corn and other necessaries were high, and the principal causes were, that the crop of the previous year was unusually deficient in Missouri, and the tide of emigration set in earlier and to a greater extent than could be expected or foreseen. Provision will be made, no doubt, for like contingencies hereafter, and the emigrant will not be likely to encounter the same inconveniences for the future. We have known some egregious mistakes to have been made, three or four years since, by persons on their route to Oregon, from the more distant States; and who, conceiving the settlements and villages on the Missouri frontier, small and scattered, thought it incumbent on them to furnish all supplies before leaving home. It was afterwards discovered, with some degree of surprise, that stores and feed could be procured at more reasonable rates in St. Joseph, than in their own distant towns and cities.

Having said so much with respect to California, it will be only necessary to observe that

the want of Catholic priests in most parts of this region will, no doubt, be a subject of complaint to the Catholic emigrant, who, in case of sickness or accident, would wish to have within reach the assistance of a minister of his persuasion and the consolations of his religion. The same remarks will apply to Oregon and the Territories; although, in certain locations, he will find himself accommodated in this respect. We are of the opinion that, setting aside this circumstance, many excellent sites could be procured for settlement in all these regions, that would be of value at a future day. Wilkes' Narrative of the U. S. Exploring Expedition, with the remaining scientific works connected with it, will furnish a vast and interesting amount of information on this subject. The Letters and Sketches of Father De Smet on Oregon, are also well worthy of perusal and attention. In all cases in which Catholics meditate removal to a remote and partially settled country, we would advise the formation of companies and colonies; not so much for the purposes of mutual protection and assistance in encountering the dangers of the wilderness and its colonization, as to obtain for themselves the spiritual succor they require, and which, under other circumstances, cannot often be procured.

CHAPTER XIV.

General notes and statistics of the different States, from observation and most correct accounts—Inferences to be drawn therefrom by the several classes of emigrants—Suggestions.

It would be a matter of great difficulty to present within the compass of a chapter, or even within a small work such as ours, an amount of statistical matter on the United States, sufficient for the purposes of the emigrant in need of such information. At the risk however of being thought defective in details, or repeating facts already generally known, we deem it necessary to offer the following observations on the several States, in the order of their separate formation. The historical, geographical, statistical and descriptive remarks refer to the present year 1851.

The thirteen old States were confederated in the summer of 1775, for the purpose of mutual defence, and the achievement of Independence. These were: Virginia, New York, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, New Jersey, Delaware, Connecticut, Maryland, Rhode Island, North Carolina, South Carolina, Pennsylvania, and Georgia. In the year following, their Independence was declared under the name of "The United States of America;" and they agreed upon the Federal Constitution, which was to come into operation on the 4th March, 1789. North Carolina and Rhode Island, at first opposed to the Federation, finally acceded:—the former in November, 1789.

the latter in May, 1790. The States subsequently added were of later formation.

1. *Virginia.* First settled by the English at Jamestown, in 1607, contains an area of 70,000 square miles. The principal productions are, wheat, corn and tobacco. The minerals are, iron, coal, copper, lead and gold. The climate is healthy, the face of the country mountainous in the Midland Districts, and the soil generally good, particularly in the Eastern and Western parts. This is a slave State, the rich planters residing towards the Eastern districts, and the slave population being small in the West, which is rather hilly. Canals and railroads are in operation, and good provision for educational purposes has been made. This is a slave State.

2. *New York.* First settled by the Dutch at Albany in 1614, contains an area of 46,000 square miles. The principal productions are, wheat and the smaller grains. Iron and lead ores abound. The climate is healthly, the soil in the Southern and Western parts extremely fertile and level, in the middle rich and undulating, and sandy towards the sea shore. In industry, enterprize, commerce, internal improvements, wealth, population and political importance, it ranks first amongst the States. Elementary schools and Collegiate education have been amply provided. This is a free State.

3. *Massachusetts.* First settled by the English at Plymouth in 1620, contains an area of 7,800 square miles. The productions are grain and artificial grasses. The surface is generally broken, but fertile and highly cultivated lands abound. The climate is healthy

and cold in winter. Its manufacturing, fishing and commercial industry gives employment to numbers, and much shipping belongs to the merchants of this State. Literary institutions and societies are numerous and the inhabitants highly intelligent. Free State.

4. *New Hampshire.* First settled by the English at Dover, 1623, its area is 9,490 square miles. The products are wheat, rye, oats, barley, pork, butter and cheese. The minerals are iron, copper and black lead in small quantities. A fine-grained granite is quarried in many places. The surface of the coast country is level, and diversified by hills, vallies and mountains in the interior. The climate is healthful and vigorous in winter; the soil is well adapted to agricultural purposes and productive. Manufactures, schools, and colleges. Free State.

5. *New Jersey.* First settled by the Danes at Bergen in 1624, contains an area of 8,320 square miles. It produces garden vegetables and fruits. It abounds in iron, copper and zinc ores. The surface is moderately level, but the soil is generally poor, although carefully cultivated and productive in the middle parts. Various manufactories of iron, glass, cottons and wollens, and valuable fisheries of shad and oysters on the coasts, and in the rivers and estuaries, distinguish the State. The climate is good. Education is now more attended to, and better provision made for its extension than formerly. A free state.

6. *Delaware.* First settled by the Swedes and Finnlanders, at Cape Henlopen, in 1627, contains an area of 2,120 miles. Wheat of a superior quality and other grains are raised.

The Northern part of the state is hilly and fertile, the Southern level and barren. This State is intersected by canals and railroads in the Northern part. Manufactures, schools and academies are established. Climate healthful. Free State.

7. *Connecticut.* First settled by the English at Windsor, in 1633, contains an area of 4,764 square miles. Indian corn, rye, barley, wheat, oats, flax, buckwheat and fruits are produced. Fine meadows and pastures abound and numbers of beeves, horses and sheep are raised. The butter and cheese made are of superior quality. The valley of the Connecticut River is extremely fertile and the remainder of the soil good and well cultivated. The climate is most salubrious. All kinds of manufactories are carried on, such as those of cotton and woolen goods, iron works, leather, paper, coaches, wagons, clocks, axes, buttons, hats, combs, and block-tin ware. In 1840 there were 116 cotton and 119 woolen factories in the State, and the value of manufactured goods amounted to 13,669,-139 dollars. Common and collegiate education is well diffused. Free state.

8. *Maryland.* First settled by the English Catholics at St.Mary's, in 1634,contains an area of 10,950 square miles. The products are wheat and grain, fruits and tobacco. Chesapeake Bay divides this State into two parts, called the East and West shores. The former is level and mostly light in soil, the latter is hilly and productive, especially in the vallies of the Allegany mountains, where the soil is rich and loamy. Herring and shad fisheries, various manufactories and extensive commer-

cial facilities, render the trade of Maryland, domestic and foreign, somewhat distinguished amongst other States. Common schools, academies and colleges are numerous and well patronized. This is a slave State.

9. *Rhode Island.* First settled at Providence in 1636, by Roger Williams and a few of the Massachusetts colonists, expelled for their peculiar religious opinions. Rhode Island is the smallest state in the Union, containing an area of 1,225 square miles. Corn, rye, barley, oats, wheat, butter and cheese are the products. The Islands and shores bordering on Narragansett Bay are of surpassing richness, but in the North and West the soil is thin. The climate is noted for its heathfulness. Rhode Island in proportion to its population is more extensively engaged in commerce than any other state in the Union. Manufactories and fisheries are its great sources of wealth. Educational facilities are excellent. Free State.

10. *North Carolina.* First settled by the English at Albemarle, in 1640, contains an area of 50,000 square miles. The Eastern low lands produce rice, cotton, and indigo, the Western high lands bring wheat, Indian corn, tobacco and hemp. The prime forests in the East yields lumber for exportation, turpentine, tar, rosin and pitch. Iron and gold abound in the Blue Ridge Mountains. The country for 60 miles or more, along the sea coasts, and extending backward, is low and swampy, and of course unhealthy. Rice can only be cultivated successfully on lands that admit of irrigation, and yields a crop of from 600 pounds to as high as 2,400 pounds per

acre. It is sowed from the middle of March to the middle of April, according to the nature of the soil; the tide lands being first planted, and inland swamps later. The land is prepared by the plough or hoe and afterwards drilled, when the rice is sown in the trenches; seeding from one to two bushels per acre. The field is then overflowed with water, for two to four days, from reservoirs or the tide. The water being carried off, the grain appears in the following week. After a second hoeing, the grass is picked from the trenches, and the water allowed to irrigate it from ten to twenty days. The water being drawn off, the plants begin to branch, each branch producing an ear of from 100 to 300 grains. Three months after planting it blossoms and forms the ear. It is then overflowed until harvest, which near the sea takes place in the latter end of August, and elsewhere in the month of September. The low counties are mostly abandoned by the planters, in the Summer and Fall seasons. The interior of North Carolina is uneven, healthy and productive, the western part is mountainous and the air pure. Trade, manufactures, internal improvment and educational establishments unimportant. Slave State.

11. *South Carolina.* First settled at Port Royal, by the English in 1670, contains an area of 33,000 square miles. The staple productions are cotton and rice, but tobacco, wheat, and the tropical fruits, pomegranites, figs, oranges, olives, apricots, nectarines, peas, apples, peaches and water melons abound. The coast for a hundred miles inland is low, sandy and insalubrious; the rivers are bordered with marshes, of a rich

soil; the whole surface of the flat country is covered with extensive pine forests; beyond this region the hills swell towards the interior, and the soil is elevated, fertile and well cultivated. The climate here is cool and salubrious, although as in most of the lower Southern States, rather enervating to northern constitutions. Many gold mines, iron and lead ore, marble, and many of the fossil earths are found. The commerce and education of the people of this State are respectable, but manufactures are inconsiderable. The wealth and refinement of the planters and the higher classes of the citizens are celebrated. This is a slave state.

12. *Pennsylvania.* Frist settled by Wm. Penn and the English, at Philadelphia, in 1682, contains an area of 46,000 square miles. The productions are wheat and the smaller grains, garden vegetables, peas, apples, peaches, &c. The mineral productions are coal and iron, with salt in inexhaustible quantities. The middle portions of the State are mountainous, and the vallies between the Alleghanies are mostly of a rich, black soil. The remainder of the State is level or moderately undulating; the soil mostly fertile and well cultivated. The educational institutions of this State are numerous and respectable. The manufactures, commerce, and vast internal improvements of Pennsylvania, give it a rank second to New York. This is a free State.

13. *Georgia.* First settled by the English at Savannah, in 1773, contains an area of 62,000 square miles. The marshy grounds extending 20 miles inwards from the sea, produces

rice, and are unhealthy. Beyond this region extend the pine barrens from which lumber, tar, turpentine and pitch are procured; afterwards the country becomes elevated, diversified with hills, mountains and vallies, the latter of which possess a loamy, rich soil. This latter section produces cotton, corn, tobacco, grain, and the fruits peculiar to South Carolina, with grapes, yams, limes, citrons, &c. The winters are mild and agreeable, and the summers warm. The southern part of this State is marshy and unhealtny. Gold is found in the hilly districts, copper and iron have been discovered to some extent. Education amongst the poorer citizens is not advanced, trade is considerable, and internal improvements respectable. This is a slave State.

14. *Vermont.* First settled by the English, at Fort Dummer, in 1724; contains an area of 8,000 square miles. It produces good wheat west of the Green Mountains,—barley, rye, oats, potatoes, maple sugar, peas, and flax are produced in all parts of the State. A large portion of the State is extensively fertile; the rest, broken mountains and thin of soil. Iron, copper, lead and marble abound. The climate is remarkably healthy, the air pure, and the land well watered. Academies, schools, colleges, and manufactories are numerous, but generally on a small scale. Vermont was originally a portion of the State of New York, but was admitted in June, 1791, as a separate, and the first formed State after the "old thirteen." It is free.

15. *Kentucky.* First settled by Daniel Boon, at Boonsborough, in 1775, formed a part of Virginia, until incorporated into a State in

June, 1793. It contains an area of 4000 square miles. Hemp, tobacco, Indian corn, and wheat are the staples. Salt springs and manufactories are numerous. The climate is mild and salubrious. The soil contains all varieties of surface and degrees of quality. The eastern part of the State is mountainous and barren; along the banks of the Ohio, the land is hilly and broken, but is interspersed with fertile vallies and bottoms; the tract between Green and Licking rivers in the interior, is in general, very fertile and well cultivated. A vast bed of limestone, eight or ten feet below the surface, forms the substratum of the soil; this contains many crevices into which the creeks and small streams are found to sink in the dry seasons, and the large rivers also considerably diminish. Particular localities are noted for educational institutions and the refinement of their inhabitants, but education is in most places not advanced beyond the opportunities afforded by the common schools. This is a slave State.

16. *Tennessee.* First settled by the English, at Nashville, in 1765, and formed of territory ceded to the United States by North Carolina, was admitted into the Union in 1796. Its area is 45,600 square miles. Cotton, tobacco, grain and fruits are produced. Iron, gold, coal, salt and mineral earths are found. The climate is generally healthful, but especially so in the Eastern highlands. The best soil predominates in the western, but exterds to the eastern parts, which are mostly barren. Education, manufactures and public improvements are advancing. A slave State.

17. *Ohio.* First settled by the English, at

Marietta, in 1788, formed out of the North-Western territory into a State, in November, 1802. It contains 44,000 square miles. Indian corn, wheat, rye, oats, buckwheat, tobacco, hogs, horses, cattle, &c., are raised to a very great extent. Coal is abundant in the east, iron and salt are found. The climate is mild and healthy; in the neighborhood of marshes agues prevail. These latter are found on the borders of Lake Erie, and in some parts of the interior. The soil is of unusual fertility, but very hilly and broken towards the east. On the head waters of the Sciota and Muskingum are large prairies. A high state of cultivation, numerous manufactories, great enterprise in trade, general and advanced education, and public improvements on an extensive scale distinguishes Ohio. A free State.

18. *Louisiana.* First settled by the French, in 1699, at Ibbenville, and afterwards ceded with the territory extending up the Mississippi and Missouri rivers, to the United States by France. In April, 1812, it was formed into a State. It contains an area of 48,000 square miles. The principal productions of Louisiana are sugar, cotton, rice and tropical fruits, such as oranges, lemons, figs, &c. The whole surface of the country is mostly a dead level, covered in many places with marshes and swamps, particularly around the mouth of the Mississippi and of the Gulf of Mexico. The alluvions on the banks of the Mississippi are elevated and crowned with levees or embankments to keep out the overflow of the river, and as they recede from this point, they fall below the surface of its waters. The bayous, or water duets, lead from the different points

of the river above New Orleans, and during the seasons of annual inundation they carry off the superfluous waters; except in the case of crevasses or bursting of the embankments raised, no material damage takes place on the occurrence of these overflows. The surface is covered with pine trees, generally rises into fine swells, with hollows between, to the depth of thirty or forty feet. The prairies in the western parts of the State are large, and covered with horses and cattle that require no other provision for subsistence in the winter. The sugar plantations commence about 100 miles above New Orleans, on the river alluvions. Many parts of this State are healthful, with a mild, open winter of two or three months duration; but the other seasons of the year are warm. Fertility of soil generally characterises this State, and in many instances this fertility is inexhaustible. Good provisions have been made for education, and short rail-roads at different points have been constructed. This is a slave State.

19. *Indiana.* First settled by the French at Vincennes in 1730, forming a part of the North Western Territory, was admitted into the Union in December, 1815. About 36,400 square miles constitutes its area. Indian corn, grain, hemp, tobacco, cattle, horses, swine, &c., are raised. Coal, iron, salt, are produced in inconsiderable quantities. The climate is pleasant, but in places much sickness prevails, particularly on the low banks of rivers and marshes. The surface is level and very fertile. Prairie and woodland alternate. Of all the free States it is least distinguished in proportion to the length of time since its formation, for

education and manufactures. Improvements are extensively projected. Free State.

20. *Mississippi.* First settled by the French, at Natchez, in 1716, formed out of a portion of the territory ceded by South Carolina to the United States, was admitted as a separate State, in December, 1817. Its area is 48,000 square miles. Cotton, grains, fruits, are its principal products. Its climate is temperate. The southern part of the State, bordering on the Gulf of Mexico, and for 100 miles inland, is covered with pine forests, prairies and swamps; the soil here is clayey or sandy. Towards the north the soil is fertile, and rises in hills or elevated swells. Education, manufactures and public improvements are yet in an incipient state of progress. A slave State.

21. *Illinois.* First settled by the French, at Kaskaskia, in 1749, formed part of the North Western Territory ceded by Virginia, and was admitted into the Union in December, 1818. Its area is 55,000 square miles. Indian corn, wheat, oats, rye, barley, hemp, tobacco, beef and pork are the staple products. Coal, lead, and iron are abundant; copper, salt and lime are known. The climate is mild and healthy; sickness prevails in a few localities. The southern part of the State is level, and the northern hilly. Many extensive prairies are found, and the soil is mostly of surpassing fertility. Education has received a flourishing impetus, and the public improvements of Illinois are on an extensive scale, and proving each day, their capability of clearing off the heavy debt at first contracted in their erection. This is a fine State, with a most liberal consti-

tution in reference to naturalized citizens. It is free.

22. *Alabama.* First settled by the Spaniards, at Mobile, in 1783, formed out of the territory ceded by South Carolina and Georgia to the Union, was admitted a State in December, 1818. Its area is 51,700 square miles. Cotton, corn, and tobacco are extensively raised. Iron ore, coal and gold are the minerals. In the southern part the climate is unhealthy, and good in the northern parts. The land is low and level along the Gulf coast, where rice is produced; the middle is rolling, and the northern part broken but fertile. Improvements, trade and education are advancing.—This is a slave State.

23. *Maine.* Settled originally by the English, at York, in 1630, formed out of a part of Massachusetts, entered into the Union in March, 1820. Its area is 32,000 square miles. Grain, lumber, fish and cattle are the products. The surface is level on the sea coast, hilly in the interior, and occasionally elevated by ranges of mountains. The climate is healthy, but cold. Education is in a forward state, particularly in the southern parts, which are most populous. This is a free State.

24. *Missouri.* First settled by the French, at St. Genevieve, 1663, formed out of part of the territory ceded by the French Treaty of April, 1803, and, after considerable discussion, admitted into the Union, August, 1821, and only after the adoption of the famous compromise line, by which slavery was excluded from territory, north of 36 degrees west of the Mississippi, except in States or Territories already formed. Its area is 64,000 square miles. The

products are Indian corn, wheat, rye, oats, hemp, tobacco, beef, pork, mules and horses. Iron and lead are found south of the Missouri river in inexhaustible quantities. Copper, zinc, manganese, antimony, cobalt, &c., are found. Coal is abundant. Nitrous and aluminous earths, salt springs, marble, thermal and sulphurated waters, are very common. The climate is temperate and very salubrious. The mineral region, or south of the Missouri river, is broken and barren, but in many places is fertile, especially along the rivers. The northern part of the State is diversified with woods and extensive prairies, the soil is generally rich, and the surface rolling. The southern Missouri is mountainous, except towards the south-western portion, which forms the commencement of a swamp that is said to extend to Texas with little interruption. The trade and manufactures of this State are very respectable. Education has been amply provided for—46,000 acres of public land being set apart for colleges and academies, and 1,100,000 for common schools. The public improvements are yet in embryo, but projected on an extensive scale. A slave State, but the slaves constitute a very small minority of the population.

25. *Michigan.* First settled by the French, at Detroit, in 1670, formed part of the North Western territory, and was made a State in January, 1837. Its superfices is 38,000 square miles. The products are wheat, barley, oats, peas, corn, and fruits. The soil is level, of remarkable richness, well watered and favourable to the cultivation of artificial grasses. Its commerce and manufactures are considerable. Its climate very healthful. Much has been

already done for education and common schools. It is a free State.

26. *Arkansas.* First settled by the French, at Arkansas, in 1685, formed part of the Louisanian French province, and came into the Union in June, 1838. Its extent is 55,000 square miles. Corn and cotton are the staple products, but wheat, rice and tobacco abound. Iron, lead, coal and salt are the principal minerals. Slate, almost equal to the best Welsh slate, is most abundant near Little Rock. The soil is light and barren in many parts, but contains much fertile land. The portion bordering on the Mississippi is low, and often submerged;—agues are prevalent here. The central portions of the State are undulating or broken, and the western parts mountainous. Removed from swamps and low bottoms, the country is healthy, and the climate agreeable. Education, manufactures, internal improvements are backward. A slave State.

27. *Florida.* First settled by the Spanards, at St. Agustine, in 1665, formed out of the territory ceded by Spain to the United States, by a treaty of February 22nd 1819, and received into the Union in March, 1845. Its extent is 55,000 square miles. Florida produces cotton, sugar, rice, limes, prunes, peaches, figs, oranges, lemons, pomegranates, dates, cattle, horses, swine, cedar and live oak. During the months of July, August and September, the climate is hot and fevers prevail. The soil near the rivers and lakes is extremely rich; in other places marshy and unproductive. The land is barely elevated above the sea in most places and level. The country

is backward in improvements trade and education. A slave state.

28. *Texas.* First settled by the Spaniards, at San Antonio de Bexar, in 1752, revolted from the Mexican confederation in 1836, and was received as one of the United States in March, 1845, by a joint resolution of both houses of Congress. The area is 160,000 square miles. Cotton, sugar, tobacco, rice, indigo, wheat, cattle and tropical fruits, are produced. The country along the coast is low, but free from marshes, and contains some good arable and grazing lands. In the north and west extend vast prairies; in the north-east, the country is undulating and better wooded; and in the south-west the surface is broken by mountains. The soil is mostly of a rich black mould on the prairies, and level. Improvements and education, owing to the disturbed and sparsely peopled state of the country, are yet backward. A slave State.

29. *Iowa.* First settled by the French in 1811, we believe at Dubuque.* It was received into the Union December, 1846. It has an area of 52,000 square miles. Wheat, corn, oats, potatoes, rye, &c., are grown in abundance. Lead is supposed to be inexhaustible; in the central and northern regions copper, iron and coal are found. Iowa is healthy, fer-

* Unless we are greatly mistaken, the founder of Dubuque is buried in the Catholic grave yard of Cahokie, nearly opposite to St. Louis, at the mouth of the Creek of the same name. The date of the death of Dubuque (from him the city was named) is inscribed on an humble tomb there, and as we believe, precedes the present century. We have often thought it strange, that so little interest should be manifested in putting on record the early annals and incidents of Western towns and localities, while yet fresh in memory; as at a future day they will be of service to the antiquary and historian.

tile, well watered, beautifully diversified by wood-land and prairies, and milder in climate than Wisconsin. Good tracts of public land remain to be entered in the interior and on the whole, it furnishes great inducements to agricultural emigrants of small means. This state being yet in its infancy, trade, manufactures and education have only begun to take a start. For the latter a liberal provision has been made. Congress has voted 46,000 acres for colleges and academies, and 1,400,000 for common schools. Improvements are commencing. A free State.

30. *Wisconsin.* First settled by the French about the middle of the 17th century, at Rapide des Peres,† and at the mouth of the Wisconsin River, in 1675. It was admitted into the Union in 1847. The superfices includes 62,500 squares miles. Wisconsin is an excellent wheat and grain country, and gives in this respect an abundant yield. Potatoes grow well. South of the Wisconsin river, lead mines are numerous and productive. Copper, antimony, and iron are known. The soil is black and fertile in most places; and the climate is healthy, but rigorous in the winter.—This State is admirably adopted for Irish emigrants, many of whom are to be found here, and the constitution is liberal. Improvements, education and trade are rapidly progressing. In consequence of the frozen lakes and rivers in winter, commerce will always experience a draw back. A free State.

31. *California.* First settled by Spanish Jesuits,‡ before 1779, conquered by the Amer-

† McCabe's Gazetteer of Wisconsin.
‡ Greenhow's History of Oregon and California.

icans in 1847, and admitted into the Union in 1850. Its area is unknown, and owing to its late occupation by the United States and partial settlement, little information has been obtained regarding products, trade and manufactures. We refer to the preceding chapter. It is a free State.

The United States territories already organized are—Oregon, New Mexico, Nebraska and Minesota. They are, of course, thinly settled as yet, but the population is rapidly and steadily increasing.

It will be observed in the foregoing *tableaux*, that we have been especially careful to note those characteristics, which might be supposed to have an important bearing on the interests of our emigrant countrymen. A common book of geography, or map of the United States will supply at a glance all the necessary information, respecting position, site, railroad, river, canal connection, &c. Much judgment requires to be exercised with respect to the advantages and disadvantages of station, climate, gains, mode of living, and religious facilities. However as we would have all our countrymen settle down in a home, which must be procured by honest industry and exertion ; and as every circumstance considered, we believe the West for the present, affords the best facilities, and a climate most suitable to their constitution, we have no hesitation, in calling on the emigrant agriculturist to consider well its attractions. Those about to engage in other occupations, must decide for themselves, with regard to the town and locality in which they intend to settle, and prosecute their respective employments. But

we would remark, that if Irishmen wish to procure respect for themselves in the United States, they must secure the possession of some little holding, or property, and take a sufficient interest in identifying themselves with their local prospects, neighbourhood, business and good habits of their American fellow citizens. We cannot too strongly recommend them to become their own employers and have the disposal of their own time; for it is surprising to remark what a difference is produced in this respect between the independent bearing, comfortable position, and respectable standing of the man who commands his own services and perhaps those of others, and the man, who obeys the orders of an employer, and depends upon precarious chances of employment.

As we do not wish to repeat advices already given, or enlarge on ideas which our detached remarks frequently excite, we expect a few obvious hints and reflections will not be lost upon our countrymen. We seek to confine them to just habits of thought, which we hope their own good sense will approve; and to this end in the following chapter, we keep their moral standing to the community and country at large in view, as we have hitherto endeavoured to suggest the means, that may be most likely to lead to their material prospects and advancement.

CHAPTER XV.

General observations—The United States and their resources—The manners, habits and character of the people—Necessity of assimilation in a great degree on the part of the emigrant—Most noted and objectionable traits of Irish character—Preservation of religious principles and independence.

In our general intercourse with men, it is always of the utmost importance to study well their peculiarities of character manifested under various circumstances, and their habits, and feelings generated by a variety of causes. It is true indeed, that the passions, virtues and vices, are found amongst people of all nations, and that nature's laws are in all places essentially the same in these respects; but, notwithstanding these admitted truths, it must be acknowledged, that differences of race, institutions, government and education have an important bearing on the development of individual and national character. This must be apparent to all who have had an opportunity of making extended national comparisons. It should therefore, be the object of all enlightened persons to observe closely those salient points of character calculated to produce physical, mental, and moral elevation nationally and individually; and to attain the correct habits of thought and action these examples are capable of producing. We should be no less on our guard to avoid whatever traits and characteristics, sound judgment, and virtue cannot approve; nor should we fear condemnation and reproach, if duty and conscience

call upon us to run counter to certain preju dices, impulses and habits, which cannot be indulged, without the desertion of principle or the wreck of innocence. But, in fact, an opposition of this kind, framed on the immutable dictates of truth and justice, must ultimately carry with it the respect, if not the admiration, of the most ignorant and prejudiced amongst those actuated by other habits and feelings. Hence, it is incumbent on the Irish emigrant in America, to remark the lines of distinction that might be drawn between his personal and national peculiarities, and those of the people amongst whom he resides. He has also to note, the differences between the habits and manners of the native born citizens, and those of foreign birth, that he may be enabled to conciliate by a well regulated course of conduct, opposite feelings, and dispositions, and maintain towards all an upright, tolerant, respectful and independent position and character.

The boundless resources of the United S ates, and the energetic and enterprising habits of the people, continually furnish opportunities for the practice of successful exertion. Although the increase of population since the establishment of the Republic has been unprecedented in ancient or modern times, a full scope for the talents and industry of the inhabitants remains open, and to all appearances will not immediately close. The mineral products of the country are as yet partially developed—in most instances hardly discovered ; the agricultural operations are in few localities advanced to the highest perfection of scientific and productive labour,—the

most negligent system of management enables the farmer to raise sufficient for home consumption, with a susplus for the market, whilst millions of fertile acres of the public domain are yet in a state of waste and unproductive. The wants of a growing population and prosperous country require the introduction of manufactories, trades and arts to places as yet of small importance. The demands of the country and the age call for education of a more extended nature, and of a higher degree of excellence. Towns and cities are yet in their infancy, nor has capital yet increased to the culminating point; many towns and cities will to all appearance rise at a future day on sites at present unnoticed. Many profitable branches of trade and commerce have yet to be opened, and the demands upon industry must give them a corresponding scope and stimulus. Such are the promised and probable destinies of this great Republic; and so long as the people of the United States are true to its interests and conservation, so long may we entertain reasonable expectations of its present and future eminence amongst the nations of the Old and New World.

The free institutions of the citizens of this great federation, and of the several States, have had no doubt a considerable influence upon their character. The consciousness that all public offices and employments, and all stations of trust and eminence are thrown open to the competition of all persons capable of obtaining them by ability, influence and popularity, creates a feeling of independence, at least on the part of those who are mainly instrumentalin the bestowal of those gifts. And

perhaps the care and circumspection with which the office holder looks, if not to the due discharge of the duties of his trust, at least to the approval of his constituents, and the hopes he entertains for a removal of their favours on future occasions, may be on the whole considered favourable to the maintainance of liberty and the general interest of the country. The abolition of titles and rank, but such as are derived from personal deserts, contributes in no small degree to produce that social equality, which enables all men of talent and ambition, to run their career with varying chances. It is true, indeed that transcendent abililities and the force of genius may elevate the possessors to distinction under any government whatever; but it is no less true, that where fostered by liberal institutions, they are drawn, as it, were into public light, and ample scope is afforded for their development.

The condition of the free citizens of the United States preserves the distinctive traits of personal independence in a very marked degree. Hitherto, we do not discover the vast gulf placed between the large landed proprietor and the toiling peasant, nor the death-struggle maintained between capital and labor. If competition in trade be active, it has not yet become excessive; and so many chances always present themselves for a successful exertion elsewhere, that the mechanic, whether employer or employed, can change his location or even his business with little difficulty, and, perhaps, to his advantage. People are not confined here to the one business or employment by the hereditary or professional feeling that

binds them elsewhere; it is considered in no manner disparaging for a man to shift his calling and position in pursuing his career for a livelihood—this, however, must be asserted under certain reservations. The extended means of intercourse between the different points of the United States, and the facilities afforded for travelling, render the movements of the people unsettled and migratory. This is more particularly the case in the free States. The early turn of enterprize and the eagerness of youth to run an independent career, have contributed to separate friends and the members of the same families, and to fuse the population of the different States in various localities. This uncontrolled disposition has, in some degree, tended to weaken family and local attachments; but to counterbalance these effects, it has fitted the adventurer to engage with more self-reliance and enterprise in the public and practical occupations of life.

As a people, the inhabitants of the United States are intelligent, enterprising, industrious and brave. The sort of education most generally prevailing is what has been acquired in the common schools, and of course does not exceed a good knowledge of reading, writing, arithmetic, grammar, geography and the history of the country. Professional men, in addition, acquire a knowledge of ancient and modern languages, or, oftentimes a college or university education in the older States; but, in the West, this advantage is not always obtained. The enterprise of the people often leads them into ruinous speculation; and industry is assisted by every ingenious contrivance and mechanism that can be devised. The history

of the country, and the brilliant triumphs of the land and naval forces of the United States have established that bravery of character now acknowledged by rival nations. In civil life it must be indeed regretted that so many tragic occurrences, arising from the vindication of real or imaginary insults and injuries, should be recorded. In most instances, we believe, that a sturdy and strict administration of the law would be effectual in suppressing these outrages and diminishing their evil influence on the morals of the community. The practice of duelling, reprehensible as it undoubtedly is, has, notwithstanding, some false notions of honor connected with it in the minds of many; but we are utterly at a loss to conceive how the ends of justice or worldly honor can be attained by the actors in so many deadly and disgraceful personal rencontres. These being the most objectionable features, and of too frequent occurrence in this country, we trust that the sound judgment and patriotism of our people will bring them into utter disrepute. All the generous and amiable qualities of character will be found to influence strongly the American people. Civility of deportment, frankness of manner, hospitality, individual self-respect, want of servility, and an obliging disposition stand forth pre-eminent. An appreciation of the natural and acquired advantages of the great country in which they live, renders them justly proud of their Republic and its institutions; and their patriotism is of that practical and devoted cast which makes the individual conceive himself an incorporated part of the nation, and, as such, bound to

fulfil the duties and obligations of patriot and citizen.

It will be obvious, therefore, that the Irish emigrant in order to discharge well the duties of an adopted citizen, must endeavor to assimilate himself, in a great measure, to those traits of national habits, manners, and character that are really worthy of praise and admiration. Besides conciliating the esteem and approbation of the people amongst whom he is called upon to reside, it becomes a principle of duty or politeness to adopt those practices, which are in no manner reprehensible, and which, however different from our own, may be adjudged preferable, when weighed calmly and dispassionately. There are certain habits, however, peculiar to each country, which it would neither be expedient nor reasonable to adopt; nor is it expected by the inhabitants of this or any other country that strangers should conform to them. The versatile powers of many of our countrymen render them peculiarly fitted to become citizens of the world; and it has been especially remarked, that of all other strangers, the educated Irishman finds himself most at home in the United States,—he seems to have been destined by nature for a participation in the active and business pursuits of the country, and in the benefits and advantages derived from its laws and institutions. His innate feelings and disposition, moreover, seem to be almost congenial to the habits and general character of the people amongst whom he is called upon to reside; and no man takes a deeper and more abiding interest in the honor, prosperity and institutions of the country of his

adoption. Even the uneducated classes of Irishmen are actuated by like motives and impulses; and it is amusing to observe how often, in many respects, their zeal outruns discretion. We have known instances in which the voice, accent, gesture, air, and even the most minute practices of Americans have been assumed, but nevertheless, to all eyes save their own, they appeared, unmistakably, Irish. Although, "to hold, as 't were, the mirror up to nature" had been the object of the actors, yet, from some strange distortions in the objects or reflectors, the "modesty of nature" had been o'erstepped, and the effect on the whole appeared indescribably ludicrous. But, we pass over these amusing exhibitions, and shall direct a few remarks against the most noted and objectionable traits of Celtic character, and on the means to be employed for their reformation.

Irresolution or want of determination with regard to the future, defeats the active projects of too many of our countrymen. Many distracting schemes for a future livelihood will be indulged in, and many pursued, without a direct reference to the ultimate end to be accomplished. A want of sober reflection and steady perseverance has been deeply injurious to the prospects of many Irishmen. In these respects they would do well to remark the conduct of our German fellow-citizens, who, in general, with greater disadvantages, proceed by slow, steady and sure steps to the acquisition of a competence. In progressing through life, the mind should be directed, in a general way, to the attainment of one leading object, and all appliances should be mainly directed

to secure its acquisition. We are now understood to leave religion out of the question, whilst admitting its paramount excellence;—but we must bear in mind, that it should ever actuate the motives, and guide the conduct of individuals intent upon extraneous objects.

The tendency of the Irish to crowd into cities or be engaged together in large bodies on public works has been already remarked; and we believe it will be generally acknowledged, that the country must be the proper sphere for the exertions of the agricultural emigrant. Solitude or want of his accustomed society may at first appear irksome, but habit will soon reconcile him to it, and even render it agreeable; for he must recollect that the kindly offices of his new neighbors can be easily secured by his own deserts, and that no portion even of the most newly-settled country will present the gloom and desolation his imagination represents. Besides, he should reflect, that if higher wages can be obtained elsewhere the outlay for his maintenance and that of his family will be proportionably great; and he must also find how little can be saved for a future day, even after years of unremitting toil and careful economy. A time must undoubtedly arrive when he will be broken down by age, sickness, or want of strength to labour; he cannot depend on the aid of his children, in consideration of the habits of the country, which teach them at an early age to attempt something on their own account. If he possesses not a home, or the means of securing the requisites of life, what other asylum can be furnished him in old age, but the cold charity of a public hospital or alms-house?—

On the other hand, once his homestead has been secured in the country, he will live contented and respected, and have the satisfaction of seeing his family grow up around him prosperous and industrious, and removed from the pestilential examples and practices of city life.

We are happy to be enabled to congratulate our countrymen, on the great reformation that has been wrought on the national character of late years, by the exertions of the world renowned Father Mathew. Intemperance has in a great measure, disappeared, and if in some instances it be yet indulged, the shame which justly attaches its seal to the drunkard's character, prevents those open and offensive violations of public decency, that were once so common. Yet, we must say, public taverns, and still worse, low groggeries, absorb too much of the hard earnings of many Irishmen. These, when conducted by unscrupulous characters, are the besetting nuisances of large cities and public works. A most absurd belief once pervaded too many of our countrymen, that if a man were not liberal, nay profuse in spending his money to treat others to ardent spirits, he could not be considered in any other light than as a niggardly person, and underserving the regards of his companions. This false notion of honor and spirit led persons to indulge in excesses, that were distasteful to themselves in more than one respect. We have likewise known some, who although they have abandoned the use of liquor, yet delight to recount the sums they have spent in treating others, the carousing that ensued, and the wild freaks of passion, and violence afterwards excited.

Irishmen sometimes imagine they give a very high impression of the national spirit and courage of their compatriots, by relating those disgraceful brawls and contemptible quarrels that have occurred at home and abroad; whereas in reality these lawless outrages disgust all sensible men, and are as far removed from true manly spirit and courage, and national reputation, as disparaging actions can well be. To apply the sentiment of Lord Chesterfield to boasters of a like stamp, we would desire for their own, and the national honor, to account them liars, since we would not wish to compare them to beasts.

We are not amongst the number of those who would wish to extinguish all feelings of national sentiment, pride and affection in the breast of the Irishman. On the contrary, the dictates of nature, strong in the minds of all men, and especially in the sons of the Green Isle, must ever bring strongly to recollection and heart, the memories, hopes, and interests of the land of our birth. Without a deep feeling of this kind, we would conceive it scarcely possible to entertain a just attachment to the land of our adoption. Love of country however must not be rendered exclusive; it is the part of a good citizen to discharge his practical duties, and give an undivided and willing allegiance to that country, whose protection and advantages have been afforded him. No man will suffer in the estimation of native American citizens, for a love of the country of his birth; but it would be highly objectionable, as well as imprudent to obtrude offensive comparisons between the country of his nativity and adoption, to the prejudice of the

latter, and especially when uncalled for, they would be indelicate and ungenerous. On this head we have an apposite remark to make. It has been frequently our lot, to hear very loose assertions made by Irishmen, regarding the extreme wretchedness and misery of our country and its inhabitants, and the whole attributed to the system of government therein exercised, without taking other causes into account, and this in the presence of Americans. The object no doubt very often is, to exaggerate the highly wrought pictures of political discontent at home, or to flatter the national pride of free born Americans. This is often attained, not only by unfavourable and frequently unjust impressions made on their minds regarding Ireland and Irishmen, but most commonly at the expense of truth. Whilst we deprecate the whole system of governmental and social wrong inflicted upon our country, we are not at liberty to exculpate our countrymen from being instrumental to some extent in the continuance of these evils. Neither can we admit the fidelity of those broad caricatures of Ireland and Irishmen, that pass current in the fictions of tale writers and travellers; it has never been our misfortune to witness the joint occupancy of the poorest cabin, by the owner, and his pig or cow, or to be offended by any other unseemly practice, but such as must result from the struggle of honest poverty. True it is, cleanliness and health might oftentimes be more attended to, and with advantage, in some instances, in Ireland, as well as in all other countries.

In the preservation of an independent char-

acter and position, our countrymen should ever bear in mind that self-reliance and personal exertion are the sure passports to these objects. No man in this country need expect advancement in any of the walks of life through the influence of friends, or their promises to look to his interests. Moreover, dependence is dishonorable, when not induced by misfortune or unforseen casualties, which is not often the case; and so long as a man becomes the recipient of favors, without an effort of his own to acquire his necessities as a right, so long must he cease to be respected; and want of respect must lead to contempt for his person and character. The easy independence and established mode of living in the old country, and the little necessity that existed for exertion beyond an ordinary routine of business, leaves many that enjoyed comfort and competence at home in a very pitiable condition when they land in the United States. Despondency and disappointment are apt to prey on the spirits of many amiable and over-sensitive characters, when manly fortitude is the virtue most necessary and most wanting in their new situation. It will never do to sit down and brood over misfortunes; action is required, if not to support life, at least to divert these gnawing cares. There are many cases, in which persons are thrown by a want of courage into a state of abject dependence, rather than face difficulties in order to conquer them. We might instance examples we have known, where charitable persons would be willing to afford relief, and the grateful receivers would acknowledge it with thankfulness, and oftentimes personal services. In receiving and re-

turning these small favors, however, time lost, self-respect abandoned, and opportunities of acquiring independence neglected. A thousand distressing evils result from want of energy or of respectful pride of condition, and its effects have a most injurious tendency on the formation and firmness of character.

Last of all, the religious character of the Irish people should be preserved inviolable, under all trials and adverse circumstances. Little, indeed, may be feared for the loss of faith, which, embraced from the firmest conviction, and nurtured under obstacles of no ordinary kind, will not be likely to yield to the pressure of poverty or the seductions of sectarianism. We have known instances in which it had been made a condition of service, to insist on the person about to be engaged to refrain from the practices of religious duty required by the church, and even to attend at other places of worship; but we are happy to be able to state, that in no one of these instances had the condition been complied with, and of course the contract was rescinded. These illiberal requisitions, however, are becoming less frequent, probably from the futile nature of the object sought to be accomplished. The very innocent efforts of tract distributors and *colporteurs* in the way of perversion are less absurd, and equally successful. It often happens, however, that Catholics, strong indeed in faith, but loose in practice, are satisfied to mince matters in company with those of other persuasions; to keep their character and religious observances concealed, in order not to offend unjust prejudices. Sometimes, also, they will be satisfied to pass over false asper-

sions and charges made in their presence on the Religion they profess, without an attempt to refute them mildly, but firmly. In most cases, however, this proceeds from want of general learning or volubility of utterance sufficient for the purposes of a successful controversialist; but we would have every Catholic so far informed as to be always able "to give an account of the faith that is in him." A man who would attempt to disguise his religious belief, through a fear of rendering himself unpopular by assisting at it on proper occasions and in a proper manner, must be a most contemptible and cowardly character. Moreover, he loses the very object he often seeks to attain, namely, the esteem and consideration of others. A firm and modest declaration of sentiments and reasons, however opposite to those generally prevailing, must always procure respectful consideration towards the person advancing them; whilst, if it be suspected that a man entertains opinions without the courage to acknowledge them, he must sink in the estimation of all those by whom he is surrounded, or to whom he may be known. But, according to the words of Holy Scripture, "There is one that holdeth his peace, that is found wise; and there is another that is hateful, that is bold in speech. A wise man will hold his peace till he see opportunity: but a babbler and a fool will regard no time."—Eccles. xx. 5, 7.

CHAPTER XVI.

Private, public and social duties—Neighborly offices—Naturalization—Civic and political privileges, and their exercise—Political information and its acquisition—Educational efforts.

In the exercise of our obligations, as men and citizens, we have several duties to perform of a public and social nature; but we must be careful to form our private character on the basis of rectitude, and morality, that we may be properly directed in the discharge of these duties. Our obligations, therefore, may warrant the introduction of preliminary remarks, which of necessity must be concise.

We need scarcely observe, that without laying deep the foundations of religious feeling and practice, as insisted upon by the Holy Catholic church, our character and conduct cannot be swayed by motives and principles sufficiently binding to lead us to present and future happiness. Our object, however, is not to discuss so obvious a truth at length, and indeed for the well instructed Catholic, it would be an useless undertaking, but to lay down a principle, which must be steadily kept in view, and on which the superstructure we intend to build must rise. Man, as an individual, has his gradations of life to pass through, from infancy to youth, from youth to manhood, from manhood to old age. He has also his different states of relationship as parent or child, as married or single, as relative, or neighbour, as citizen or stranger. His physical, intellectual and moral culture must be

taken into consideration. Hence arises a very complicated, but not incongruous series of duties, which for want of serious reflection are overlooked or disregarded in many instances. As usual, in treating our subject, we must keep in mind the class of persons, whose interests we seek to advance; and the country in which they will be called upon to exercise their private and public duties.

The period of infancy must necessarily be a state of dependence on the guidance of those whom nature or accident shall constitute as guardians; and on these, in a great degree, must rest the moral accountability for the manner in which their obligations shall have been discharged. It must not be imagined, that children are incapable of receiving permanent and right impressions at a very early age, and before the full attainment of the exercise of reason. On the contrary, a proper system of training must be adopted from the most tender age: their habits and constitution must be formed by cleanliness, wholesome and light food, proper rest, nursing and dress. The temper should be moulded by the promotion of cheerfulness, by removing the exciting causes of passion, fretfulness and impatience, and by the early encouragement of virtuous propensities, such as the love of parents and others, unselfishness, generosity, &c.; the intellect should receive early cultivation, by exciting the attention of children to beautiful objects of nature or art, by asking and answering questions proportioned to their capacity, by studious carefulness to produce no false impressions on the mind by terrific tales or threats, but on the contrary, to relate often

the virtuous actions of good children by whose examples encouragement may be afforded them for imitation, and to mention in terms of dislike those actions that ought to be avoided. A happy admixture of tenderness, firmness, good nature, authority and intelligence on the part of the nurse, will have a powerful influence on the future character of her infant charge.

The buoyant nature of youth requires a reasonable share of indulgent relaxation. The child must, however, be taught to select virtuous companions in his amusements, to acquire correct principles, refined taste, polite manners, and industrious habits. His secular and religious education must be attended to ; and the former directed to his intended position in society. In the right management of the parent or instructor, will depend in a great measure his future usefulness to himself and to society. Manhood is the age at which judgment becomes ripe, and habit and character are formed. But it must be apparent, that no matter with what diligence we may have applied ourselves to the attainment of desired accomplishments and virtues, much remains for us to do, in the assimilation of our character to a more perfect, but not ideal standard. Piety, integrity, sincerity, temperance, good temper, cheerfulness, regularity of conduct, an obliging disposition, self-respect and respectful consideration for the feelings of others, punctuality, generosity, industry, firmness, fortitude, &c., are the virtues required from religious men ; and the exercise of these virtues will render him esteemed and respected by all his acquaintances. They will smooth

the passage through life, and bring him down to the grave honored and regretted.

We always suppose the Irish Catholic will be instructed in his catechism, so far as his moral and religious duties are concerned; and hence it will not seem strange if we pass over those institutions that come more appropriately from the chair of truth, regarding the obligations of the several states and conditions of life. The following observations are intended to apply to extraneous subjects, which may nevertheless be worthy of regard.

To be respected by those around him, must excite the emulation and elevate the character of the Irish emigrant. Besides the punctilious discharge of his private, social, and moral obligations, he must endeavour to raise himself in the social scale. To the attainment of this object, the partner of his fortunes or the members of his family circle must lend cooperation. Scrupulous neatness and cleanliness must be observed, both in person, dress, and house management. He must forswear the intoxicating draught, avoid the taverns and and those known to frequent them, and endeavour to maintain a friendly correspondence with his neighbours whether of native or foreign birth. He must shun disputes and bickerings and keep clear of law-suits. He must endeavour to require a general stock of knowledge and communicate it to those around him; and for this purpose, he should take in a paper or two, of acknowledged ability and of a respectable standard. It will be most generally the religious and political principles; and it is scarcely necessary to observe, that he will always have the right to exercise

his independent opinions, on matters open to discussion. If he would find a paper too expensive, for his means, he could easily induce a neighbour of his own persuasion, to join him in subscribing; however, the trifling expense of a dollar to two or three a year, will not be an object with most men, and the amount of intelligence communicated both to himself and the members of his family, will amply compensate him for the outlay. It should be observed, that if his paper be a religious one, he should subscribe for that published in or near his own diocess, if only to encourage the efforts of a local Catholic press. If it be a political one, he must exercise his own judgment in the selection of his favourite exponent; however, it would be well to keep in mind the journals that bear a character for integrity and enlarged views of men and measures. These are generally published in the larger cities, and give more information than the country prints. We have often known the political opinions of men strongly biassed by the journals received into their families, and hence the necessity of subscribing for a paper that will give strong, masculine and truthful turns of thought to its readers. It must be apparent to all who have instituted the comparison between the members of a family in which papers circulate, and those in which they do not, that the former are much more intelligent, respected for general information, and better calculated to turn marketable, monied, business and political transactions to good account.

The social duties of life are comprised un-

der many heads. From the most contracted, but endearing sphere of family engagements, which must be regulated by religious observances and precepts, they spread to more extended circles. It will be the duty of all heads of families to place those under their charge within the rank of religious instruction, to see that they are careful in discharging the duties of religion required of them, to keep them from the contamination of evil influences, particularly those that might endanger or weaken the ties that bind them to our Holy Church ; but above all, to set a good example themselves in those particulars, if they wish children or servants to follow instructions. Parental endearments must be blended with a proper exercise of authority in order to command the respect, as well as conciliate the love and obedience of children or servants. We must remark, that if circumstances place coloured servants, who are slaves, under the authority of a Catholic master, the latter is strictly bound to treat them with justice and humanity, to have them well clothed, well fed, comfortably lodged, and religiously instructed. By these means he secures even his temporal interests, as he is apt to be better and more cheerfully obeyed ; and many temptations in the way of pilfering from himself or his neighbours will be removed and avoided.

We can have little to urge upon the Irish emigrant as to the manner in which he is bound to perform neighbourly offices to those around him. Our countrymen in this respect are apt to oblige in every reasonable manner, or at least manifest such a disposition. Difference of religion, politics, or manners can ne-

ver interfere, as they never should, in the neighborhood, transactions of every day life. Mutual charity and toleration always characterize the liberal minded man, of all sects and parties; and where they are unknown, ignorance and bigotry are sure to usurp their place. Friendly intercourse then must be maintained, and the amenities of life practised between all men of worth and standing. In fine; nothing contributes so much to the establishment of social order and satisfaction, as uninterrupted tranquility and good understanding amongst the several inhabitants of the same neighbourhood. We should remind our countrymen, that the divisions of parties and creeds and the embittered feelings they have shamefully excited at home, must have no place in this country, where their displays would call down the contempt and indignation of every patriotic Irishman, and of every enlightened citizen.

The Irishman should endeavor to secure as soon as possible the rights of citizenship, if he have not already acquired them. The law of naturalization as it now stands, allows every person of foreign birth, landing in this country, and under eighteen years of age, to become a citizen ipso facto, by a declaration made in open court. If over that age, he must declare his intentions of becoming one in court, and renounce, on oath, his allegiance to every foreign power, prince, state and sovereignty whatsoever, and particularly to"—(the name of the sovereign or state inserted). After a proved residence of five years in the United States, by competent witnesses, he receives his final papers, and becomes a citizen.

An interval of two years at least must elapse between the first declaration of intention, and the taking out of the latter certificate; and a small fee is paid according to the established provisions of the law. Naturalization, in most of the States,is essential in securing the rights of inheritance, except such as are derived by purchase or natural succession, and in attaining political trusts, offices, and emoluments. Hence, it is important to all emigrants who are resolved to reside permanently in the Uniten States.

The acquisition of the franchise and the rights of citizenship includes the power and obligations of discharging political, as well as social duties. With regard to the political affairs, the best advice we can give our countrymen would be to distrust the representations and designs of persons and public prints, seeking to gain them over to a political party, or school of politics, by flattering their national feelings, religious belief, prejudices or passions. The spirit of party will oftentimes induce its supporters to proceed to unjustifiable means and extreme lengths in the effort of propagandism. Truth is often set aside, or at least, compromised. False imputations are cast on adverse parties,politics and politicians. No less deserving of credit are the statements of fellow-countrymen, whether naturalized or unnaturalized. We have known persons of this class, who have endeavored to impose on the intelligence of newly-arrived compatriots, by connecting measures, parties and men in the Old and New World, when the most remote relationship between them does not exist. In some instances, such statements may

proceed from honest, but erroneous, convictions; in most cases, however, partizanship or ignorance supplies the account. It sometimes happens, that the least intelligent class of emigrants will immediately adopt with unhesitating faith, a political creed, which would furnish a subject for deep study, doubt and procrastination to others more favored with the gifts of understanding and education.

Office-seeking is generally a losing game for those engaged in it, and especially the naturalized citizen. To obtain the object of an office-seeker's ambition is often deeply injurious to his character, prospects, profession or employment. Time is lost, enmities excited, employments suspended, obligations contracted, and money spent to an useless, or at best, to an equivocal purpose. Meanness and equivocation are often resorted to, promises made and broken. True it is, these are not consequences necessarily entailed on the aspirant to office in all instances. But in connection with a choice for a suitable person to discharge all duties of a public nature—character, competency and ability should be taken into consideration by these qualified to elect or appoint. We are decidedly of opinion that, where offices have no connection with politics, or an important bearing on political or social action or feeling, distinction should not be made on the score of party. When men profess to represent political sentiment or interests, electors should be careful to cast their votes for the most honest, tried and influential, after a diligent scrutiny of their motives, purposes and actions. The interests of the country at large and those of a State or local-

ity, so far as the latter are consistent with the former—the happiness and liberty of a people —national honor, patriotism, justice to citizens, strangers, individuals and nations—the firm, merciful, and just administration of the laws—the enactment of good statutes, and the repeal of ineffective and unjust ones—the supremacy of law, and its uncorrupt administration,—social order and the influences which should be brought to bear in its support;—these, and many other considerations of a like nature, ought to be the ends proposed for attainment, and the means to accomplish these ends should be of an honorable, consistent, upright and constitutional character. Intelligent electors should be on their guard against the movements and representations of demagogues, political tricksters, unprincipled scribes and caucus nominations. Political trickery can rarely be resorted to, without the compromise of patriotic principle.

As before remarked, the discharge of civic and political trusts requires great foresight, discrimination, intelligence, firmness, honesty and patriotism on the part of both the electors and elected, the nominators and nominated. In all free countries, different parties and associations will be organized, with different opinions and objects. We feel satisfied that the great majority of persons composing them mean honestly, and act according to their honest convictions. Lest we should be suspected of partiality in presenting the differences of parties and opinions in the United States, even from their several statements; we prefer the recommendation to our countrymen of exercising their own judgments in this enquiry,

and of forming their opinions, unbiassed and uninfluenced by unjust prejudices and prepossessions. We shall only premise the necessity of first studying the Constitution of the United States, and then, the Constitution of particular States: the former will be found in an appendix to these pages, or the whole will be contained in the latest edition of the "American Guide." The Constitution and History of the State in which a citizen resides will be the object of greatest interest to him, and ought to be known: the History of the United States is necessary to a right appreciation of the origin, spirit and character of our institutions.

A question of paramount importance, and likely to have an important bearing on the civil, social and religious influences of the age, is that of education. On the proper training and careful instruction of youth depends the future growth of public opinion. All sects and parties seem fully awakened to a sense of this admitted truth. Hence, the solicitude generally evinced in the establishment of educational foundations, under peculiar restrictions and an exclusive management, wherein certain religious and social influences are fostered. Others there are, who disclaim such exclusiveness, under the pretext of liberality of sentiment and of enlightened and comprehensive views, irrespective of party, religious or sectional differences. The sectarian classes may, no doubt, instil the poison of error into the minds of unsuspecting youth: however, if they be not right in principle and sound instructors, they are undoubtedly consistent and correct in practice. Liberalists seem incapable

of comprehending the intimate connection that exists between a finished education, and the habits, associations, feelings and thoughts induced by a religious, social and political training. The abstract and exact sciences, such as mathematics or arithmetic, might be indeed disconnected; but once we enter on the province of history, metaphysics, political economy, &c, we are liable to be led astray or influenced by the passions, prejudices and opinions of the teacher, or the authority, statements and propositions of the class book. The consistent Catholic, exercising the duties of a parent or guardian to youth, will therefore be desirous of instilling into their minds the principles of religion, on which depend their present and future happiness, and an education which will be in accordance with these principles. Our educational establishments are numerous and well patronised; but the considerations already advanced must awaken us to renewed exertion in multiplying and supporting them. In remote districts, the want of Catholic schools and the humble means of many Catholic parents and guardians, will not admit of an education suited to the wants and wishes of the community: but it yet rests with them in a great measure

"To rear the tender thought,
To teach the young idea how to shoot,"

to direct the undeveloped powers of the mind, and to counteract evil influences.

The building and direction of colleges, academies and schools, will furnish subjects of deep interest to those most concerned in their establishment, and require that action most necessary to procure the advantages of a sound education

CHAPTER XVII.

First difficulties of settlers—Single emigrants and families—Letter-writing and its exaggerations—Mode of transmitting passage money and remittances—Colonization and combination to effect emigration, as regards Irish emigrants.

In more than one instance have we presented in former Chapters, the privations to be encountered by emigrants, on their first arrival and location. A serious consideration on its natural consequences before the step of emigration has been taken, might be supposed sufficient to advert them of these almost inevitable difficulties. Experience however teaches us, that even persons tolerably well informed, are deceived, regarding the fond visions they intertain of a future fortune and its easy acquisition, in the United States. To calculate on these favourable issues, without the will to accomplish, the steadiness to persevere, the industry to labour, the nerve to execute, and the intelligence to apply the proper means, will occasion disappointment to the expectant. This is more especially the case, when the emigrant and his family start as the pioneers of their own fortunes, and unaided by friend or relatives in a strange country. We might add, that the most disinterested and the best directed efforts of friends will not avail, without the active co-operation of those in whose favour these efforts are made, and who are more nearly interested in their success.

When the emigrant arrives singly, he finds himself less exposed to delay, disappointment,

and expence, than when accompanied by a family; and more especially when he is not accustomed to travelling, or has no fixed destination. In the case of a single female emigrant we would advise her to travel accompanied by a faithful male protector, who on arrival would place her in charge of friends or relations. The innocence and inexperince of Irish female emigrants have frequently exposed them to the practices of cheats and swindlers, not to speak of others whose acts may be directed to more unworthy ends. But it must be acknowledged an incontrovertible fact, highly honourable to the Americans as a people, that insult or injury has never been even offered in public to an unprotected female.

When families travel directly to their destination, and, under the direction of an experienced guide, delay and expense are not often encountered; but making due allowance for numbers and accidents, these drawbacks may be even diminished in proportion. Without recommending the practises that are adopted in these cases, it might be well to suggest them. On the arrival of families at any of the sea ports, especially if the members be numerous and cannot immediately proceed further, a room or two might be rented by the week or month, for a temporary lodging. The remnants of sea store might be sold, or consumed, with the addition of fresh shamble meat or wholesome market vegetables. Washing, cooking, cleansing, &c., form inconsiderable items of expenditure. Passage fare for a number can be contracted for proportionably on more favourable terms than for an individual: drayage, freight, &c., will be nearly on

the same terms in either case. In travelling no division of members of the same family or party, nor of their luggage, should be admitted. Seperation of persons and effects, distined for the same place, will cause at least trouble, expence and delay.

In very many instances, the means that enable emigrants to reach the United States, have been furnished by relatives there who have already emigrated. In a far greater number of cases, the latter furnish representations of an exaggerated nature, regarding the resources, chances and prospects of the country, that are calculated to mislead and deceive their friends at home. An advice is given, a hint thrown out, or an unqualified assertion made, which is as often thoughtlessly acted upon, as it is thoughtlessly given. The attachment of the Irish Citizen to the laws and institutions of his adopted country, and the benefits and privileges he enjoys under their operation, makes him naturally desirous that these advantages should be enjoyed by his absent friends and relations. The desire of seeing his old acquaintances and enjoying their society, often prompts an advice, well meant indeed, but which often proves injurious in its consequences to the person for whom intended.

Irishmen living in this country and writing to their friends at home, should by all means avoid giving over coloured pictures of what they see and experience. They should when presenting the lights infuse a due proportion of the shadows of an exile's life, since both are inseparable, and sometimes sadly disproportioned. They should recollect what the first

experiment of emigration recalls to the mind of almost every trans-Atlantic voyager, and prepare their absent friends to expect many trials. They should especially consider, that the United States is the land of promise to most old-countrymen, that the exuberant imagination of Irishmen often becomes excited by the glowing discriptions, purposed doings, and actual condition of compatriot letter-writers. We know too many instances of deception at home, produced by the boastful representations of friends abroad. We shall mention a few of actual occurrence, by way of illustration. A certain individual purchased three or four hundred acres of Congress land, and erected a small hut thereon, with an enclosure of a few acres. The statement of his progress, induced some friends to abandon farms at home, that if attended too would procure a respectable income : they landed in this country, were directed to the fee simple estate of their friend, on which they expected to find a splendid house, costly furniture, horses, carriage, and all the appurtenances of a landed proprietor in the country they had left. Utter disappointment was the consequence ; and after a few irresolute efforts to make a settlement in the neighbourhood, they became discouraged and disgusted, and afterwards returned home, their prospects dissolved and their fortunes utterly blasted. In other cases we have known the most extravagant notions of respectability connected in the minds of old country friends, with the titles of captain, judge, and squire, which are of comparatively easy attaintment in the United States, and which do not elevate

the possessors above their untitled neighbours. The proprietor of a small shanty, when but indifferently furnished with a stock of "assorted goods," was accustomed to speak very ostentatiously of his merchandize and brother merchants, when writing to his old country friends, who were hardly in more flourishing circumstances than himself. In one particular instance, we knew of a splendid suit of broad-cloth, having been purchased by a poor man, to visit his trans-Atlantic friend, in a manner that would not shame his connection, as the latter was accustomed in his letters to speak of his interviews with colonels, judges, and even senators. Thus, it too frequently happens, that from the associated ideas, which are sure to result from these, and such like unqualified statements, the expectations of friends at home are unduly excited, and false impressions conveyed. Such is generally the case, when information regarding the United States is solely derived from the flattering representations of letter-writing friends.

Exaggeration and extenuation are as opposite to truth, as direct misrepresentation; but we conceive it only necessary to warn our countrymen against the former in espistolary correspondence. We might add, that in our opinion many unimportant particulars in these letters, might give place to more real information: those points of consequence to be considered by friends in their present circumstances and future proceeding should afford subjects for deliberate consideration and prudent advice; and a really valuable letter should contain facts alone clearly presented and practically useful. In receiving letters also, from

friends at home, it is often even difficult to judge of what course they had better be advised to adopt, in consequence of the total absence of important circumstantial information. The uninteresting gossippings of a neighbourhood, or public facts which are always found in the columns of a newspaper are inserted, to the exclusion of private details, and family affairs of the greatest importance, to the correspondent and his absent friend.

In the transmission of money, great caution should be observed, regarding the parties through whose hands it is about to pass. Sometimes a reliable friend returning to his native country is entrusted with the amount; but although no doubt may be entertained of his honesty and fidelity to the assumed trust, this mode of sending is liable to many accidents and disappointments. To risk the amount in letters is equally unsafe and should be avoided. The merchants of the principal cities of the United States and Europe, are often in direct communication with each other; and in cases where the parties wishing to be accommodated reside in or near these cities, monies might be transmitted or received by them through such an agency, perhaps even without per centage. For this mode of transmission the confidence of all parties concerned is required. The usual mode of transmitting money, however, is through shipping owners or their agents, who remit monies by exchange bills drawn on correspondents or agencies at home, or on some particular bank or its branches. Five per cent, is the usual compensation required for these transactions, except in case a passage is to be secured for the

amount, by their particular lines. Numberless frauds have been committed in agencies and through agents of this class; and in few instances can the injured person obtain redress. When it becomes necessary to resort to them, due attention should be given to the length of time they have been established, the general fairness with which their business concerns are transacted, and the hold they possess on the confidence of the public; the latter generally affords a good test for security.

In transmitting these orders, receipts should be secured if possible, from the persons to whom monies are consigned and when issued, they should be honoured at some agency or branch bank of established solvency, and in the immediate neighbourhood of the persons in whose favour they are drawn. These precautions often save considerable delay and expence to the recipients. The Bank of Ireland and most of the Dublin banks, have branches established at the principal towns and cities throughout the provinces; and the order should be drawn for payment on the most conveniently situated, when the parent or local institution is bound to honor the draft on due presentment. Sometimes the drawers are chargable with an oversight in this respect, as no care is taken to advertise the agent, as to the house bound for payment,and the matter is left solely to his own discretion. The consequence may be, that friends at home receive a cheque on a bank or agency far from their present location; and from a want of knowledge regarding the business operations in these transactions, or the difficulty of pre-

sentment, they will experience much delay, perhaps disappointment, in having their orders cashed.

We had desired to present our views on the subject of organized colonization in connection with emigration from Ireland; but on the whole, we are inclined to believe, that our people cannot be readily brought to adopt it with advantage to themselves. The German system of emigration in several instances has been made known to us, and has been attended with successful results. When the spirit of emigration pervades the inhabitants of a certain district in Germany, meetings for the purpose of organizing their proceedings take place; once the matter is resolved on, an intelligent agent or two is sent out to the United States, to select an eligible location, to purchase lands, &c. The report is awaited; a common stock is subscribed to meet contingent expences in equal proportions; contracts are entered into with ship owners, or the proprietors of public conveyances: all things being arranged, they start out together, united in object and fortunes, and proceed with proportional economy and expedition, to the scenes of their future labours. The staid, sober, persevering and orderly character of this people enables them to profit by such a mode of removal. Ships are chartered at reasonable rates, and provisions procured in like manner for their use. Divisions, jealousies, separations, and such like disorganizing peculiarities, do not often defeat the object of such expeditions. But the character of the Irish people seems in a general way differently constituted; and hence the partial

or complete failure of attempts at emigration on such a model. Would that our countrymen could prevail on themselves to make a national estimate of the economy and mutual aid afforded, both on the voyage and afterwards, by proceeding in this manner; and that they would avoid those discontents, murmurs, and changing purposes, which disorganize and defeat an emigration conducted on this scale. We should not however dispair of successful attempts of this kind by the Irish, but as yet we distrust their happy issue, judging from recent instances that have resulted in disappointment to the projectors.

CHAPTER XVIII.

Emigrant societies—Officers to be selected, and their duties—Branch societies—Hints on the subject of procuring circumstantial information and statistics regarding products, labor, wages, &c.—Information, whence obtained—Associations to elevate the moral position and promote the temporal prospects of Irishmen in the United States—Conclusion.

In many of the coast cities of the United States, Emigrant Societies have long been established, and have been the means of furnishing important information to the stranger, on his first arrival. Sometimes these institutions are incorporated by the different State Legislatures, their purpose being to promote the welfare of emigrants, and afford them as far as practicable advice, and information and protection. Rules and regulations, whereby

the affairs of these Societies are conducted, may be usually found in printed Constitutions and By-laws, together with the Act of Incorporation.* It would be a matter of much consequence to the unfriended emigrant, that these useful societies were multiplied, and their means of effecting good extended. A few public spirited men, with singleness of purpose, and a little exertion, could bring Emigrant Societies into successful operation in the cities and towns, where they have not yet been established. They could at least form auxiliary or branch societies, in connection with a more flourishing parent institution. Even a single individual, if he could not get others to write with him for this purpose, might effect good in a private capacity, by putting himself in correspondence with the secretaries of such societies as are already instituted, in the way of furnishing truthful statements of the wants, employments, rates of wages, and capabilities of the region in which he resides.

In selecting officers to fill up the executive committees of these societies, the onerous and important duties they are called upon to assume, require a combination of energy, activity, zeal and perseverance, not often found united in the character of a single individual. More especially the paid agents, should be men of such a cast, and ought to be animated rath-

* The New York Irish Emigrant Society has published a pamphlet, containing the Constitution, By-Laws and Act of Incorporation, passed by the New York Legislature, on the 20th of April, 1847. The Rules of the Boston Irish Emigrant Society are also published. These constitutions would form excellent models for the establishment of other societies elsewhere; and by proper application for purposes of this kind, they can be easily procured.

er by a self-sacrificing spirit and endowed with a strong resolution to see justice done emigrants, than by the cold performance of duties that help them to respectable salaries. The President and Board of Directors, should prescribe their duties and the mode of fulfilment, in all cases; and perhaps it would be well to hold out the inducement of a *bonus*, in addition to the stated salaries, to reward extraordinary zeal and attention in the discharge of these duties. In the case of emigrants, distress of a pressing nature must often be relieved, the sick must be comforted and taken care of, fraud must be exposed. Officials must be kept within the strict lines of duty required by the laws, in the discharge of those offices they are bound to fulfil towards the emigrants. This remark more especially applies to the sea-board Hospitals, where justice would require from attendants duties they are called upon to perform. These persons should recollect, and if forgetful should be reminded by the appliances of law, that their good livings and munificient salaries, are furnished not by the country at large, but by head money of the poor, despised emigrants. Hence it is, that not only the laws of the land, but the common laws of justice, require an attention at their hands to the wants and convenience of those under their charge, which are but too often shamefully neglected.*

* We have read within the last year of the treatment experienced by Emigrants at Ward's Island Hospital, near New York, which should be sufficient to arouse the indignation and reproof of every friend to humanity. Whilst on this subject, we should not omit to notice the service rendered by a portion of the public press in directing attention and enquiry to these iniquitous proceedings. We shall particularize the articles which appeared in the Boston Pilot,

We should have no reason to doubt, that most abuses, coming immediately under the cognizance of the actively benevolent gentlemen who constitute Irish Emigrant Societies, have been either removed, or redress has been sought for by them through a legal channel. But instances of fraud, injustice, and ill-treatment, will, notwithstanding, escape unwhipped of justice, no matter how faithful and assiduous may be the efforts made to expose them. Yet, if only the one twentieth part of the impositions practised on the unsuspecting emigrant could be met and defeated, much would be done for outraged humanity, and a consciousness of having achieved immense good would be the highest reward that could be hoped for, or attained, by the gentlemen constituting such societies. The practical experience of these gentlemen would render us diffident, in offering any suggestions for the well working of Emigrant Societies throughout the United States: and the remarks we are induced to offer, may appear uncalled for, either through a want of means or machinery to bring our requisitions into successful operation, or anticipation on the part of Emigrant Associations.

Besides th. admirable objects embraced in the letter of the Corresponding Secretary of the New York Irish Emigrant Society, there are others also, on which useful action might be taken. Emigrant Societies might, with advantage to the interests of emigrants, enter into engagements with passenger and forwarding

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the New York Freeman's Journal and the New York Herald at the time, as eminently deserving of public approbation, and specimens of spirited journalism.

companies, to forward passengers to their place of destination. This they could effect in a more economical manner, and with better guarrantees for the fulfilment of all contracts intered upon, than could the individual emigrant. Passages to and from Europe could be procured in like manner; and ship owners and their agents should be held strictly responsible to these societies, for fidelity to their engagements. For these purposes, agents whose honesty and attention to the interests of the emigrans might be relied on, should be located at various important points along the travellers' route, or at the principal shipping stations. In cases of faud, chicanery or imimposition on emigrants, statements to this effect, accompanied by reliable depositions, should be forwarded to the Secretary or office of Emigrant Societies, that they may be duly exposed and punished, as the law directs.

To obtain correct information from all quarters of the United States, regarding the soil, climate, products, public works, improvements, value of lands, wholly or partially reclaimed, the amount of public land to be had, the proportions of wood and prairie, roads, markets, schools, churches, prices of articles, rent, provisions, with the several rates of wages for agricultural, public or mechanical works, &c., should be attempted by these Emigrant Associations. Besides these various items of information, others of equal importance for special purposes could be obtained. To accomplish these objects, circulars prepared after the form of State or Congressional returns, could be printed, and directed to reliable persons.

Care, however, should be taken in admitting all the statements made, even when known to proceed from the best of motives, since most men are apt to give a favourable or unfavourable picture of localities that please or displease them through various private motives. However, in the great majority of instances, persons in all parts of the United States, and particularly in the West, will feel pleasure in finding emigrants flock to their respective localities. Owners of land, contractors on public works, and men of business are generally anxious for the arrival of emigrants; others again, owing to certain peculiar considerations and prejudices would be pleased to see the tide of emigration to their neighbourhood stopped. Hence all kinds of statements should be received with a due degree of caution: were we allowed to suggest a means of obtaining correct information, we would name the resident clergyman of a certain local district, as a suitable person to furnish returns, when practicable. Honest and trustworthy persons, however, should in all instances be selected in filling up such reports.

On the arrival of emigrants at the place of their final destination, experienced and intelligent persons should be recommended to them at this point, to furnish them every necessary advice and direction, and afford them encouragement and information. Farmers might be named who would be able to direct them in the usual modes of agriculture, when they would be desirous of settling on land; and we have no doubt but information on this subject could be given and received with mutual advantage, both by the newly arrived stranger

and the old settler. The laborer could direct his fellow-workman, the mechanic his brother in the same trade, and the person who intends to start in business or some of the learned professions might receive valuable hints from those already established in his line. In the great majority of instances, it need not be feared that a spirit of selfishness or mean jealousy will be exercised towards the stranger. Opposition in a particular line of business need not be feared by really competent and industrious men; and in a general way competition will only call forth superior talents to merit the reward they are sure to receive, when accompanied by persevering and well directed efforts. Above all things, we would desire our countrymen to endeavor to acquire that degree of penetration, which will enable them to discover the motives of those by whom they are surrounded, so that their interests may not suffer through easy credulity or an overweening confidence. A prudent regard to these particulars, and a long experience of mankind should furnish every man possessing an ordinary degree of acuteness and observation, with a shield to protect him from gross deception and injustice.

Besides the formation of Emigrant Societies, many others have been instituted in various localities, for the promotion of Charitable and Religious purposes. We would strongly recommend the establishment of associations, the object of which would be the elevation of the social position and influence of Irish adopted citizens. We might instance a few of this nature, altogether independent of political organisation, viz: Temperance, Educational and

Debating Societies, with proper Rules and Regulations, Mechanics' Institutes, Reading Rooms, Circulating Libraries, containing approved books, well regulated Night Schools, for the instruction of those who must devote the hours of the day to laborious occupations, and many others of a like useful and civilizing character might be named. It has often been a subject of surprise to those who have witnessed the operation of well conducted societies, and become acquainted with the acquirements of their members, to find the amount of intelligence and information attained through their medium by men, who before their enrolment occupied a low position both in their own estimation and in that of the community at large. No matter how humble his situation in life may be, no man should lose self respect or a true sense of dignity, which may be perfectly compatible with a modest deportment towards all other persons. In alluding to societies already named, we deem it unnecessary to caution our countrymen against enrolment in any illegal organization, by which they would forfeit the character of peaceful and good citizens; nor in any secret society, which of its very nature, must bear an equivocal character, and is condemned by the Church, together with the oaths taken by its members previous to initiation.

Whilst treating these subjects, we desire also to direct the attention of our countrymen to various beneficial Associations, that might be rendered conducive to their welfare under certain circumstances; of such, we might instance Savings Banks, Benevolent, Life and Mutual Assurance Societies, and Annuity

Purchases. To be rendered available to the purposes of the poor man, a knowledge of their appliances and regulations, and a confidence in the conductors, would be matters of first importance. We do not mean to recommend a participation in any of the bubble schemes that corporations are sometimes found to engage in, such as Banks, City or Railroad and Canal Stock, without a reasonable prospect of dividends that will remunerate for the amount of capital invested. We have no doubt, were the more wealthy and influential Irishmen and citizens of our principal cities to undertake the establishment of Benevolent Societies on approved principles, and furnish security for the deposites made with legal rates of interest, the hard earnings of many of our poorer countrymen would be committed to their trust, to be recoverable at any moment for a more profitable mode of investment. Thus, many a dollar might be saved for a useful purpose, that would be otherwise spent through careless extravagance, or on objects of doubtful value. It would meet our most earnest approval, that these suggestions should be acted upon by respectable and trustworthy men, in behalf of those who would derive most benefit from the establishment of such institutions. The earnings of the poor emigrant are often a source of much anxiety and actual loss to him, on account of the dishonest persons into whose company he is occasionally thrown, and the houses of equivocal character in which he is sometimes obliged to sojourn. Moreover, the gradual increase of a sum continually accumulating for his benefit, will stimulate to renewed

exertions, and promote the desire to attain a comfortable independence.

We have thus endeavored in this and the preceding chapters to point out the advantages and disadvantages of emigration to the United States, and its attendant results on the success or disappointment of our countrymen. We have also desired to direct their efforts to the channels of employment most likely to accord with their habits, happiness and capabilities. We must impress it distinctly on their recollection, that unless they endeavor with industry and perseverance to secure a permanent home and settlement for themselves and their families in the land of their adoption, the rational ends of emigration have been neglected, and its advantages over-rated. Fairly and candidly, according to the extent of our ability and means of information, have we presented what we conceived to be useful information, in connection with our subject; and if we have succeeded, however remotely, in contributing to the happiness of the very humblest of our countrymen, our labor has been sufficiently remunerated for the pains taken to effect a cherished object in its most desirable results.

THE END.

THE

CONSTITUTION

OF THE

UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.

Framed during the year 1787, *by a convention of delegates, who met at Philadelphia, from the states of New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Connecticut, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia.*

We, the people of the United States, in order to form a more perfect union, establish justice, insure domestic tranquility, provide for the common defence, promote the general welfare, and secure the blessings of liberty to ourselves and our posterity, do ordain and establish this Constitution for the United States of America.

ARTICLE I.

SECT. I.—All legislative powers herein granted shall be vested in a congress of the United States, which shall consist of a senate and house of representatives.

SECT. II.—1. The house of representatives shall be composed of members, chosen every second year by the people of the several states, and the electors in each state shall have the qualifications requisite for electors of the most numerous branch of the state legislature.

2. No person shall be a representative, who shall not have attained to the age of twenty-five years, and been seven years a citizen of the United States, and who shall not, when elected, be an inhabitant of that state in which he shall be chosen.

3. Representatives and direct taxes shall be apportioned among the several states which may be included within the Union, according to their respective numbers, which shall be determined by adding to the whole number of free persons, including those bound to servitude for a term of years, and excluding Indians not taxed, three-fifths of all other persons. The actual enumeration shall be made within three years after the first meeting of the congress of the United States, and within every subsequent term of ten years, in such manner as they shall by law direct. The number of representatives shall not exceed one for every thirty thousand, but each state shall have at least one representative: and, until such enumeration shall be made, the state of New Hampshire shall be entitled to choose three, Massachusetts eight, Rhode Island and Providence Plantations one, Connecticut five, New York six, New Jersey four, Pennsylvania eight, Delaware one, Maryland six, Virginia two, North Carolina five, South Carolina five, and Georgia three.

4. When vacancies happen in the representation from any state, the executive authority thereof shall issue writs of election to fill such vacancies.

5. The house of representatives shall choose their speaker, and other officers; and shall have the sole power of impeachment.

Sect. III.—1. The senate of the United States shall be composed of two senators from each state, chosen by the legislature thereof, for six years: and each senator shall have one vote.

2. Immediately after they shall be assem-

bled, in consequence of the first election, they shall be divided as equally as may be into three classes. The seats of the senators of the first class shall be vacated at the expiration of the second year; of the second class, at the expiration of the fourth year; and of the third class, at the expiration of the sixth year, so that one-third may be chosen every second year; and if vacancies happen by resignation, or otherwise, during the recess of the legislature of any state, the executive thereof may make temporary appointments, until the next meeting of the legislature, which shall then fill such vacancies.

3. No person shall be a senator who shall not have attained to the age of thirty years, and been nine years a citizen of the United States, and who shall not, when elected, be an inhabitant of that state for which he shall be chosen.

4. The vice-president of the United States shall be president of the senate, but shall have no vote, unless they be equally divided.

5. The senate shall choose their other officers, and also a president pro tempore, in the absence of the vice-president, or when he shall exercise the office of president of the United States.

6. The senate shall have the sole power to try all impeachments. When sitting for that purpose, they shall be on oath, or affirmation. When the president of the United States is tried, the chief-justice shall preside: and no person shall be convicted without the concurrence of two-thirds of the members present.

7. Judgment in cases of impeachment shal not extend further than to removal from office

and disqualification to hold and enjoy any office of honor, trust, or profit under the United States; but the party convicted shall, nevertheless, be liable and subject to indictment, trial, judgment, and punishment, according to law.

SECT. IV.—1. The times, places, and manner of holding elections for senators and representatives, shall be prescribed in each state by the legislature thereof; but the congress may, at any time by law, make or alter such regulations, except as to the places of choosing senators.

2. The congress shall assemble at least once in every year, and such meeting shall be on the first Monday in December, unless they shall, by law, appoint a different day.

SECT. V.—Each house shall be the judge of the elections, returns, and qualifications of its own members, and a majority of each shall constitute a quorum to do business; but a smaller number may adjourn from day to day, and may be authorized to compel the attendance of absent members, in such penalties as each house may provide.

2. Each house may determine the rules of its proceedings, punish its members for disorderly behavior, and, with the concurrence of two-thirds, expel a member.

3. Each house shall keep a journal of its proceedings, and from time to time publish the same, excepting such parts as may, in their judgment, require secrecy, and the yeas and nays of the members of either house, on any question, shall, at the desire of one fifth of those present, be entered on the journals.

4. Neither house, during the session of

congress, shall, without the consent of the other, adjourn for more than three days, nor to any other place than that in which the two houses shall be sitting.

SECT. VI.—1. The senators and representatives shall receive a compensatien for their services, to be ascertained by law, and paid out of the treasury of the United States. They shall, in all cases except treason, felony, and breach of peace, be privileged from arrest during their attendance at the session of their respective houses, and in going to and returning from the same; and for any speech or debate in either house, they shall not be questioned in any other place.

2. No senator or representative shall, during the time for which he was elected, be appointed to any civil office under the authoriiy of the United States, which shall have been created, or the emoluments whereof shall have been increased during such time; and no person, holding any office under the United States, shall be a member of either house during his cnntinuation in office.

SECT. VII.—1. All bills for raising revenue shall originate in the house of representatives; but the senate may propose or concur with amendments, as on other bills.

2. Every bill which shall have passed the house of representatives and the senate shall, before it becomes a law, be presented to the United States; if he approve, he shall sign it, but if not, he shall resurn it, with his objections, to that house in which it shall have originated, who shall enter the objections at large on their journal, proceed to reconsider it. If after such reconsideration, two-thirds

of that house shall agree to pass the bill, it shall be sent, together with the objections, to the other house, by which it shall likewise be reconsidered, and if approved by two-thirds of that house, it shall become a law. But in all such cases the votes of both houses shall be determined by yeas and nays, and the names of the persons voting for and against the bill shall be entered on the journal of each house respectively. If any bill shall nat be returned by the president within ten days (Sundays excepted) after it shall have been presented to him, the same shall be a law, in like manner as if he had signed it, unless the congress, by their adjournment, prevent its return, in which case it shall not be a law.

3. Every order, resolution, or vote, to which the concurrence of the senate and house of representatives may be necessary, (except on a question), shall be presented to the president of the United States; and before the same shall take effect, shall be approved by him, shall be repassed by two-thirds of the senate and house of representatives, according to the rules and limitations prescribed in the case of a bill.

SECT. VIII.—The congress shall have power—

1. To lay and collect taxes, duties, imposts, and excises; to pay the debts, and provide for the common defence and general welfare of the United States; but all duties, imposts, and excises shall be uniform throughout the United States.

2. To borrow money on the credit of the United States.

3. To regulate commerce with foreign na-

tions, and among the several states, and with the Indian tribes.

4. To establish a uniform rule of naturalization, and uniform laws on the subject of bankruptcies throughout the United States.

5. To coin money, regulate the value thereof, and of foreign coin, and fix the standard of weights and measures.

6. To provide for the punishment of counterfeiting the securities and current coin of the United States.

7. To establish post-offices and post-roads.

8. To promote the progress of science and useful arts, by securing, for limited times, to authors and inventors, the exclusive right to their respective writings and discoveries.

9. To constitute tribunals inferior to the supreme court.

10. To define and punish piracies and felonies committed on the high seas and offences against the law of nations.

11. To declare war, grant letters of marque and reprisal, and make rules concerning captures on land or water.

12. To raise and support armies; but no appropriation of money to that use shall be for a longer term than two years.

13. To provide and maintain a navy.

14. To make rules for the government and regulation of the land and naval forces.

15. To provide for calling forth the militia to execute the laws of the Union, suppress insurrections, and repel invasions.

16. To provide for organizing, arming, and disciplining the militia, and for governing such part of them as may be employed in the

service of the United States, reserving to the states respectively, the appointment of the officers, and the authority of training the militia, according to the discipline prescribed by congress.

17. To exercise exclusive legislation, in all cases whatsoever, over such district (not exceeding ten miles square), as may, by cession of particular states, and the acceptance of congress, become the seat of the government of the United States, and to exercise like authority over all places purchased by the consent of the legislature of the state in which the same shall be, for the erection of forts, magazines, arsenals, dockyars, and other needful buildings: and

18. To make all laws which shall be necessary and proper for carrying into execution the foregoing powers, and all other powers vested by this constitution in the government of the United States, or in any department, or office thereof.

Sect. IX.—1. The migration or importation of such persons as any of the states now existing shall think proper to admit, shall not be prohibited by the congress, prior to the year one thousand eight hundred and eight, but a tax or duty may be imposed on such importation, not exceeding ten dollars for each person.

2. The privilege of the writ of habeas corpus shall not be suspended, unless when in cases of rebellion or invasion, the public safety may require it.

3. No bill of attainder, or ex-post facto law, shall be passed.

4. No capitation, or other direct tax shall be

laid, unless in proportion to the census, or enumeration, herein before directed to be taken.

5. No tax or duty shall be laid on articles exported from any state. No preference shall be given by any regulation of commerce or revenue, to the ports of one state over those of another; nor shall vessels, bound to or from one state, be obliged to enter, clear or pay duties in another.

6. No money shall be drawn from the treasury, but in consequence of appropriations made by law; and a regular statement and account of the receipts and expenditures of all public money shall be published from time to time.

7. No title of nobility shall be granted by the United States; and no person holding any office of profit or trust under them, shall without the consent of congress, accept of any present, emolument, office, or title of any kind whatever, from any king, prince or foreign state.

Sect. X.—1. No state shall enter into any treaty, alliance, or confederation; grant letters of marque and reprisal; coin money; emit bills of credit; make any thing but gold and silver coin a tender in payment of debts; pass any bills of attainder, ex-post facto law, or law impairing the obligation of contracts, or grant any title of nobility.

2. No state shall, without the consent of congress, lay any imposts or duties on imports or exports, except what may be absolutely necessary for executing its inspection laws: and the nett produce of all duties and imposts, laid by any state on imports and exports, shall be for the use of the treasury of

the United States, and all such laws shall be subject to the revision and control of congress. No state shall, without the consent of congress, lay any duty on tonnage, keep troops, or ships of war, in time of peace, enter into any agreement or compact with another state, or with a foreign power, or engage in war, unless actually invaded, or in such imminent danger as will not admit of delay.

ARTICLE II.

SECT. I.—1. The executive power shall be vested in a president of the United States of America. He shall hold his office during the term of four years, and, together with the vice-president, chosen for the same term, be elected as follows :

2. Each state shall appoint, in such manner as the legislature thereof may direct, a number of electors, equal to the whole number of senators and representatives to which the state may be entitled in the congress; but no senator or representative, or person holding an office of trust or profit under the United States, shall be appointed an elector.

3. The electors shall meet in their respective states, and vote by ballot for two persons, of whom one at least shall not be an inhabitant of the same state with themselves. And they shall make a list of all the persons voted for, and of the number of votes for each; which list they shall sign and certify, and transmit, sealed, to the seat of government of the United States, directed to the president of the senate. The president of the senate shall, in the presence of the senate and house of representatives, open all the certificates, and the votes shall then be coun-

ted. The person having the greatest number of votes shall be the president, if such number be a majority of the whole number of electors appointed; and if there be more than one who have such majority, and have an equal number of votes, then the house of representatives shall immediately choose, by ballot, one of them for president: and if no person have a majority, then from the five highest on the list the said house shall, in like manner, choose the president. But in choosing the president, the votes shall be taken by states, the representation from each state having one vote; a quorum for this purpose shall consist of a member or members from two-thirds of the states, and a majority of all the states shall be necessary to a choice. In every case after the choice of the president, the person having the greatest number of votes of the electors, shall be the vice-president. But if there should remain two or more who have equal votes, the senate shall choose from them by ballot, the vice-president.

4. The congress may determine the time of choosing the electors, and the day on which they shall give their votes: which day shall be the same throughout the United States.

5. No person, except a natural-born citizen, or a citizen of the United States at the time of the adoption of this constitution, shall be eligible to the office of president, neither shall any person be eligible to that office, who shall not have attained the age of thirty-five years, and been fourteen years a resident within the United States.

6. In case of the removal of the president

from office, or of his death, resignation, or inability to discharge the powers and duties of the said office, the same shall devolve on the vice-president; and the congress may, by law, provide for the case of removal, death, resignation, or inability, both of the president and vice-president, declaring what officer shall then act as president, and such officer shall act accordingly, until the disability be removed, or a president shall be elected.

7. The president shall, at stated times, receive for his services, a compensation, which shall neither be increased nor diminished during the period for which he shall have been elected, and he shall not receive, within that period, any other emolument from the United States, or any of them.

8. Before he enters on the execution of his office, he shall take the following oath, or affirmation:

"I do solemnly swear (or affirm) that I will faithfully execute the office of president of the United States, and will, to the best of my ability, preserve, protect, and defend the Constitution of the United States."

SECT. II.—1. The president shall be commander-in-chief of the army and navy of the United States, and of the militia of the several states, when called into the actual service of the United States; he may require the opinion, in writing, of the principal officer in each of the executive departments, upon any subject relating to the duties of their respective offices, and he shall have power to grant reprieves and pardons for offences against the United States, except in cases of impeachment.

2. He shall have power, by and with the

advice and consent of the senate, to make treaties, provided two-thirds of the senators present concur; and he shall nominate, and by and with the advice and consent of the senate, shall appoint ambassadors, other public ministers, and consuls, judges of the supreme court, and all other officers of the United States, whose appointments are not herein otherwise provided for, and which shall be established by law. But the congress may, by law, vest the appointment of such inferior officers as they think proper in the president alone, in the courts of law, or in the heads of departments.

3. The president shall have power to fill up all vacancies that may happen during the recess of the senate, by granting commissions, which shall expire at the end of their next session.

Sect. III.—He shall, from time to time, give to the congress information of the state of the Union, and recommend to their consideration such measures as he shall judge necessary and expedient; he may, on extraordinary occasions, convene both houses, or either of them, and in case of disagreement between them, with respect to the time of adjournment, he may adjourn them to such time as he shall think proper; he shall receive ambassadors and other public ministers; he shall take care that the laws be faithfully executed, and shall commission all the officers of the U. States.

Sect. IV.—The president, vice-president, and all civil officers of the United States, shall be removed from office on impeachment for, and conviction of treason, bribery, or other high crimes and misdemeanors.

ARTICLE III.

SECT. I.—The judicial power of the United States shall be vested in one supreme court, and in such inferior courts as the congress may, from time to time, ordain and establish. The judges, both of the supreme and inferior courts, shall hold their offices during good behavior, and shall, at stated times, receive for their services a compensation, which shall not be diminished during their continuance in office.

SECT. II.—1. The judicial power shall extend to all cases, in law and equity, arising under this constitution, the laws of the United States, and treaties made, or which shall be made, under their authority; to all cases affecting ambassadors, other public ministers and consuls; to all cases of admiralty and maritime jurisdiction; to controversies to which the United States shall be a party; to controversies between two or more states, between a state and citizens of another state, between citizens of different states, between citizens of the same state claiming lands under grants of different states, and between a state, or the citizens thereof, and foreign states, citizens, or subjects.

2. In all cases affecting ambassadors, other public ministers, and consuls, and those in which a state shall be a party, the supreme court shall have original jurisdiction. In all other cases before mentioned, the supreme court shall have appellate jurisdiction, both as to law and fact, with such exceptions, and under such regulations as the congress shall make.

3. The trial of all crimes, except in cases of

impeachment, shall be by jury; and such trials shall be held in the state where the said crime shall have been committed; but when not committed within any state, the trial shall be at such place or places as the congress may, by law, have directed.

SECT. III.—1. Treason against the United States shall consist only in levying war against them, or in adhering to their enemies, giving them aid and comfort. No person shall be convicted of treason, unless on the testimony of two witnesses to the same overt act, or on confession in open court.

2. The congress shall have power to declare the punishment of treason, but no attainder of treason shall work corruption of blood, or forfeiture, except during the life of the person attained.

ARTICLE IV.

SECT. I.—Full faith and credit shall be given in each state to the public acts, records, and judicial proceedings of every other state. And the congress may, by general laws, prescribe the manner in which such acts, records, and proceedings shall be proved, and the effect thereof.

SECT. II.—1. The citizens of each state shall be entitled to all the privileges and immunities of citizens in the several states.

2. A person, charged in any state with treason, felony or other crime, who shall flee from justice, and be found in another state, shall on demand of the executive authority of the state from which he fled, be delivered up, to be removed to the state having the jurisdiction of the crime.

3. No person, held to service or labor in

one state, under the laws thereof, escaping into another, shall, in consequence of any law, or regulation therein, be discharged from such service or labor, but shall be delivered up on claim of the party to whom such service or labor may be due.

SECT. III.—New states may be admitted by the the congress into this Union, but no new state shall be formed or erected within the jurisdiction of ony other state; nor any state be formed by the junction of two or more states, or parts of states, without the consent of the legislatures of the states concerned, as well as of the congress.

2. The congress shall have power to dispose of and make all needful rules and regulations respecting the territory, or other property, belonging to the United States; and nothing in this constitution shall be so construed as to prejudice any claims of the United States, or of any particular state.

SECT. IV.—The United States shall guarantee to every state in this Union, a republican form of government, and shall protect each of them against invasion; and on application of the legislature, or of the executive, (when the legislature cannot be convened) against domestic violence.

ARTICLE V.

The congress, whenever two-thirds of both houses shall deem it necessary, shall propose amendments to this constitution, or, on the application of the legislatures of two-thirds of the several states, shall call a convention for proposing amendments, which, in either case, shall be valid, to all intents and puroposes, as part of this constitution, when ratified by the

legislatures of three-fourths of the several states, or by conventions in three-fourths thereof as the one or the other mode of ratification may be proposed by the congress: Provided, that no amendment, which may be made prior to the year one thousand eight hundred and eight, shall, in any manner, affect the first and fourth clauses in the ninth section of the first article; and that no state, without its consent, shall be deprived of its equal suffrages in the senate.

ARTICLE VI.

1. All debts contracted, and engagements entered into, before the adoption of this constitution, shall be as valid against the United States under this constitution, as under the confederation.

2. This constitution, and the laws of the United States, which shall be made in pursuance thereof, and all treaties made, or which shall be made, under the authority of the United States, shall be the supreme law of the land; and the judges in every state shall be bound thereby, any thing in the constitution or laws of any state to the contrary notwithstanding.

3. The senators and representatives before mentioned, and the members of the several state legislatures, and all executive and judicial officers, both of the United States and of the several states, shall be bound by oath, or affirmation, to support this constitution; and no religious test shall ever be required, as a qualification to any office or public trust under the United States.

ARTICLE VII.

The ratification of the convention of nine

states, shall be sufficient for the establishment of this Constitution, between the states so ratifying the same.

Done in convention by the unanimous consent of the states present, the seventeenth day of September, in the year of our Lord, one thousand seven hundred and eighty-seven, and of the Independence of the United States of America, the twelfth. In witness whereof, we have hereunto subscribed our names.

The Constitution, although formed in 1787, was not adopted until 1788, and did not commence its operations until 1789. The number of delegates chosen to this convention was sixty-five, of whom ten did not attend, and sixteen refused to sign the Constitution. The following thirty-nine signed the Constitution :

New Hampshire.—John Langdon, Nicholas Gelman.

Massachusetts.—Nathaniel Gorham, Rufus King.

Connecticut.—William Samuel Johnson, Roger Sherman.

New York.—Alexander Hamilton.

New Jersey.—William Livingston, David Brearley, William Patterson, Jonathan Dayton.

Pennsylvania.—Benjamin Franklin, Thomas Mifflin, Robert Morris, George Clymar, Thomas Fitzsimmons, Jared Ingersoll, James Wilson, Gouverneur Morris.

Delaware.—George Read, Gunning Bedford, jr., John Dickinson, Richard Bassett, Jacob Broom.

Maryland.—James M'Henry, Daniel of St. Thomas Janifer, Daniel Carroll.

Virginia.—John Blair, James Madison, jr.

North Carolina.—William Blount, Richard Dobbs Spaight, Hugh Williamson.

South Carolina.—John Rutledge, Charles C. Pinkney, Charles Pinkney, Pierce Butler.

Georgia.—William Few, Abraham Baldwin.

GEORGE WASHINGTON, *President.*

WILLIAM JACKSON, *Secretary.*

AMENDMENTS.

To the Constitution of the United States, ratified according to the Provisions of the Fifth Article of the forgoing Constitution.

ART. I.—Congress shall make no law respecting an establishment of religion, or prohibiting the free exercise thereof; or abridging the freedom of speech, or of the press; or the rights of the people peaceably to assemble, and to petiton the government for a redress of grievances.

ART. II.—A well-regulated militia being necessary to the security of a free state, the right of the people to keep and bear arms, shall not be infringed.

ART. III.—No soldier shall, in time of peace, be quartered in any house without the consent of the owner, nor in time of war, but in a manner to be prescribed by law.

ART. IV.—The right of the people to be secure in their persons, houses, papers, and effects, against unreasonable searches and seizures, shall not be violated, and no warrants shall issue, but upon probable cause, supported by oath of affirmation, and particularly describing the place to be searched, and the persons or things to be seized.

ART. V.—No person shall be held to answer for a capital, or otherwise infamous crime, un-

less on a presentment or indictment of a grand jury, except in cases arising in the land or naval forces, or in the militia, when in actual service, in time of war, or public danger; nor shall any person be subject for the same offence to be twice put in jeopardy of life or limb; nor shall be compelled, in any criminal case, to be a witness against himself, nor be deprived of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law; nor shall private property be taken for public use without just compensation.

ART. VI.—In all criminal prosecutions, the accused shall enjoy the right to a speedy and public trial, by an impartial jury of the state and district wherein the crime shall have been committed, which district shall have been previously ascertained by law, and to be informed of the nature and cause of the accusation; to be confronted with the witnesses against him; to have compulsory process for obtaining witnesses in his favor, and to have the assistance of counsel for his defence.

ART. VII.—In suits at common law, where the value in controversy shall exceed twenty dollars, the right of trial by jury shall be preserved, and no fact, tried by jury, shall be otnerwise re-examined in any court of the United States, according to the rules of the common law.

ART. VIII.—Excessive bail shall not be required, nor excessive fines imposed, nor cruel and unusual punishments inflected.

ART. IX.—The enumeration in the Constitution, of certain rights, shall not be construed to deny or disparage others retained by the people.

ART. X.—The powerr not delegated to the

United States by the Constitution, not prohibited by it to the states, are reserved to the states respectively, or to the people.

ART. XI.—The judicial power of the United States shall not be construed to extend to any suit in law or equity, commenced or prosecuted against one of the United States, by citizens of another state, or by citizens or subjects of any foreign state.

ART. XII.—The electors shall meet in their respectives states, and vote by ballot, for president and vice-president, one of whom at least, shall not be an inhabitant of the same state with themselves; they shall name, in their ballots, the person voted for as president and, in distinct ballots, the person voted for as vice-president; and they shall make distinct lists of all persons voted for as president, and of all persons voted for as vice-president, and of the number of votes for each, which lists they shall sign and certify, and transmit, sealed, to the seat of the government of the United States, directed to the president of the senate. The president of the senate shall, in the presence of the senate and house of representatives, open all the certificates, and the votes shall then be counted. The person having the greatest number of votes for president, shall be the president, if such number be a majority of the whole number of electors appointed; and if no person have such a majority, then from the persons having the highest numbers, not exceeding three on the list of those voted for as president, the house of representatives shall choose immediately, by ballot, the president. But, in choosing the president, the votes shall be ta-

ken by states, the representation from each state having one vote; a quorum for this purpose shall consist of a member or members from two-thirds of the states, and a majority of all the states shall be necessary to a choice. And if the house of representatives shall not choose a president, whenever the right of choice shall devolve upon them, before the fourth day of March next following, then the vice-president shall act as president, as in the case of the death, or other constitutional disability of the president.

The person having the greatest number of votes as vice-president, shall be the vice-president, if such number be a majority of the whole number of electors appointed; and if no person have a majority, then, from the two highest numbers on the list, the senate shall choose the vicé president—a quorum for the purpose shall consist of two-thirds of the whole number of senators, and a majority of the whole number of senators, and a majority of the whole number shall be necessary to a choice.

But no person, constitutionally ineligible to the office of president, shall be eligible to that of vice-president of the United States.